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SECONDARY EDUCATION

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SECONDARY EDUCATION

Basic Principles and Practices

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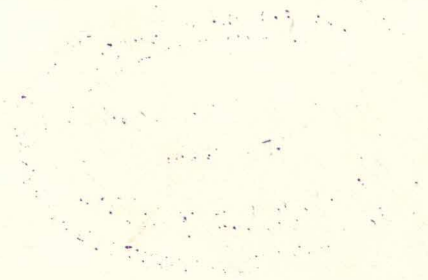

SECONDARY EDUCATION

BASIC PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES

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NEW YORK

RINEHART & COMPANY, INC. : PUBLISHERS

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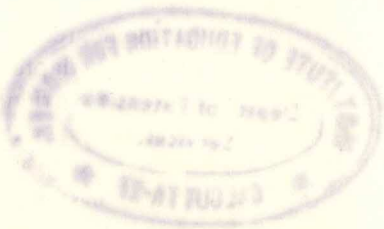
Designed by Stefan Salter

Seventh Printing, May, 1956



PREFACE

Secondary Education: Basic Principles and Practices is designed as a source of information and ideas for all who work or plan to work in secondary schools. In the expectation that our largest number of readers will be persons preparing to be secondary school teachers, we have tried to answer the questions asked by beginning teachers whom we have supervised or taught. We have also tried to give enough information about innovative practices to stimulate the beginners to examine all practices critically; at the same time we have attempted to help the experienced teacher in his search for better ways of working.

In our professional experiences as teachers and administrators of elementary and secondary schools, as directors of curriculum and research, and as teachers of courses in education—in fact, in all our educational affiliations—we have been concerned with the problem of improving secondary education to meet the needs of every adolescent. Several years ago we agreed that the major obstacles educators encountered in improving the high school could be attributed to the fact that many persons who taught there lacked a full understanding of its functions, program, and possibilities. Because we believe that this lack may be met in part by a publication of comprehensive scope, we have attempted to bring together in this book all the information, ideas, and problems that we consider essential to an understanding of the high school of modern America.

The period in which we have been concerned with the problems of improving secondary education and in which we have been gathering ideas and data for this book has witnessed many developments that have as yet to be fully implemented in the program of the secondary school. The need of a curriculum adapted to *universal* secondary education has been popularized, but the curriculum has not undergone enough fundamental revision throughout the nation. An important study has been made of the relations of high school and college, but the results of this work, the Eight-Year Study, have not sufficiently affected either college-admission practices or high school curriculum offerings. Significant investigations of the needs of youth, such as the studies carried on by the American Youth Commission, have revealed needs that are yet to be fulfilled in school and community organization. New curriculum proposals, including the core curriculum, work-experience programs, and closer school-community relationships, await full utilization. During World War II many significant innovations in secondary education promised lasting improvements. A

most important publication of the Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth,* and a companion volume of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Planning for American Youth,* depicted a program of postwar secondary education that is being attained, although perhaps less rapidly than the mythical commissions reporting in these volumes are purported to have brought about change in "Farmville" and "American City." Since the war a tremendous increase in the number of children to be educated impresses all educators with the necessity for bringing about major improvements in secondary school education before our high schools are overwhelmed by the crowded conditions already prevailing in the elementary schools.

In *Secondary Education: Basic Principles and Practices* we have tried to give the secondary school worker full advantage of our observation and study of all these and other developments. Chapters I and II describe the job of the secondary school teacher—his responsibilities and opportunities—in the light of the needs and potentialities of the modern secondary school. Chapters III and IV answer the questions of how this school came to be and what its purposes are. The important problem of the relations of governmental units to secondary education and the equally important problems of financial support are presented in Chapters V, VI, and VII, with the aim of developing a clear understanding of the political and economic situation, complex as it is, of the high school. Chapters VIII and IX describe the organizational and administrative arrangements within which the individual unit or worker must effect improvements. Chapter X analyzes the adolescents who attend the secondary school, and Chapter XI, the general program it offers; Chapter XII relates the curriculum to the needs of adolescents. In these chapters, to point up the dilemma of universal secondary education and some of the solutions that have been proposed, a great deal of material is drawn from various studies of past years. The excellent analysis of the imperative educational needs of youth presented in *Education for All American Youth* is used in Chapter XII and later as a basis for analyzing the secondary school program and evaluating its potentialities. Chapters XIII and XIV deal with the subjects generally offered in secondary schools. Chapters XV and XVI describe two of the recent developments in curriculum practice: core curriculum and work experience. Chapter XVII is devoted to classroom procedure, Chapter XVIII to out-of-class school activities, and Chapter XIX to the more recent emphasis on school-community activities. Chapter XX describes the guidance program and other special services of the modern secondary school.

In making our chapters practical we have been greatly helped by suggestions from students in university classes, teachers and principals on the job, and our colleagues in various educational positions. We earnestly hope that, in addition to our own experiences, the experiences of

all these persons and those of the numerous writers and organizations who have so generously given us permission to quote their works are adequately reflected in these pages, and that all who read them will understand the principles on which secondary education for all American youth must build.

WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER
J. GALEN SAYLOR

January, 1950

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SECONDARY EDUCATION

Basic Principles and Practices

I TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Teaching is one of the most honorable and highly respected of the professions. It is also one of the oldest. In all countries and among all civilized peoples the teacher has always been essential to the welfare of the group, for on him rest important responsibilities for the perpetuation and improvement of its culture. Many communities exist and flourish without engineers, architects, dentists, doctors, lawyers, journalists, and the like, but seldom, if ever, do they exist without teachers. The establishment of schools of some sort has usually been one of the first organized social undertakings of new communities. Moreover, teaching is a social service of the highest order for no other group of persons has such close, intimate contact as have teachers with the families of the communities. On no other shoulders rest such heavy responsibilities for the future of our citizens. Teaching is a service of utmost importance in our democratic society.

What Does It Mean to Be a Teacher?

We who select teaching as a career should understand its nature and demands. Just what is teaching? What makes for success as a teacher? What qualities and characteristics distinguish successful teachers? How may a person interested in teaching determine whether he possesses to a high degree the factors that make for success in teaching? What traits should a person seek to develop that will aid him in becoming a better teacher? These are questions that we will consider in this chapter.

THE NATURE OF TEACHING

Teaching is the guidance of human growth and development. In teaching at its best, teachers provide pupils with experiences that will make worth-while and, insofar as possible, maximum contributions to mental, physical, social, and emotional growth. Adolescents will grow and develop, regardless of the school; so the responsibility of the school is to direct growth, to channel it properly, to speed it up so that youngsters may more quickly and more capably assume their rightful responsibilities in the society. In guiding development, the school must also provide for breadth of experience so that the student will be able to make the best

possible contribution to his social group, his community, his state, his nation, and his world.

In broad terms, then, a teacher's professional job is

1. To plan experiences for pupils
2. To direct pupils in the development of these experiences
3. To work for the improvement of the entire educational structure

Added to these strictly professional responsibilities of the teacher are two other responsibilities, one toward his community and one toward himself:

4. To contribute to the improvement of the life of the social group, on family, community, state, national, and international levels
5. To live a rich, personally satisfying life

PLANNING EXPERIENCES FOR PUPILS

Since all learning is the result of experience, it is the function of the school to provide experiences that will result in the proper growth and development of young persons. The contribution that the high school will make to the all-round development of adolescents depends, therefore, on the nature and quality of the experiences provided through the educational program. Chapter IV will discuss the nature of the program we must have in present-day high schools if we as teachers, working cooperatively, are to fulfill our responsibilities and provide young persons with rich learning opportunities. The school must function through teachers; only when teachers understand the responsibility of the American high school and put forth their best efforts to discharge this responsibility will our educational system fulfill its mission.

The extent to which teachers have opportunities for planning teaching experiences varies greatly from high school to high school, but all in all these opportunities are much too limited at present. In the traditional high school the teacher is assigned certain subjects, such as American history, algebra, or biology, and in addition often is asked to supervise or direct certain out-of-class activities. To guide him in teaching these subjects, a textbook is usually supplied; frequently a syllabus or course of study, which has been developed by the local system or the state department of education, is available. Through conferences, administrative and supervisory officials, such as a departmental head, supervisor, principal, or superintendent, may further delineate the *subject matter* to be covered in the course.

It is assumed that each teacher will concentrate on teaching his subjects and doing other assigned duties, and not concern himself with the total development of the pupils who pour in and out of his classroom all day long. True, he does have a freer hand in carrying forward out-of-

class activities that he sponsors, but custom and practice, rather than the needs of the students participating, weigh heavily in determining what the group does.

Some of the better administered high schools of today, it is true, permit and encourage a great deal of freedom on the part of the teacher in planning the learning activities for a class or subject. This is especially true in these progressive high schools with regard to the social studies,

PLATE 1

TEACHERS PLAN LEARNING EXPERIENCES FOR PUPILS. One important responsibility of teachers, individually and cooperatively, is to plan learning experiences that will make a maximum contribution to the education of their pupils. (Courtesy of the Lincoln, Nebraska, Public Schools)

English, general science, the practical arts, and shop courses. Also, in the new types of core or general-education courses, if the basic purposes of the program are to be achieved, it is essential that the core group have freedom to plan the experiences to be undertaken.

Planning educational experiences for pupils should be a cooperative undertaking. The lay public, parents, the board of education, administrative and supervisory officials of the school, teachers, and pupils should have a part in determining what educational activities the high school will provide. All persons concerned with the educational process should in cooperation set the general pattern of the educational program—the nature and extent of the educational program (the purposes to be served by the school) and the services to be provided by the school.

School officials and teachers should have the major responsibility for

determining the pattern of the educational experiences to be provided—the subjects and courses to be offered, the requirements, the policies affecting the program, the nature and extent of the out-of-class program, the guidance services, the nature of evaluations to be made, the extent to which pupils are to engage in cooperative enterprises outside traditional subject classes, and many similar matters affecting the quality of the experiences provided. Teachers and pupils should cooperatively decide on the specific experiences to be undertaken by the immediate group, be it a formal class, an extraclass activity group, or some other school group working under the direction of the school.

Teachers and principals, then, do have large areas of responsibility for planning and for policy making in the secondary school. Especially has the role of teachers expanded in the modern high school. As they show greater competency in carrying forward wise planning, they will undoubtedly assume even greater responsibilities. They will less and less slavishly "teach" the content of a prescribed textbook or the topics listed in a course of study and will more and more determine for themselves what pupils need for maximum development. Such responsibilities comprise the challenge and privilege of teaching. Plate 1 depicts three teachers of a high school staff, the principal of the school, the associate superintendent in charge of curriculum, and a specialist from the state department of education discussing plans for teaching a unit on the United Nations Organization in the social studies classes of the school.

GUIDING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The second major aspect of a teacher's professional responsibility is to direct the development of the learning experiences that have been planned for pupils while they are under the direction of the school. This guidance is teaching; this is what we do as teachers of algebra, physics, music, and the like, or as sponsors of the school paper, of the high school "pep" club, and of similar activities. The shop class shown in Plate 2 is benefiting from the guidance of an able teacher, who is showing them how to use tools properly.

Teaching in the traditional high school has consisted primarily of directing pupils in the mastery of subject matter or in the development of skills in the subjects offered as a part of the curriculum. The chief concern of teachers in traditional schools is that pupils assigned to their classes learn the subject—the facts, formulas, dates, important events, causes, rules, and the like that specialists in the field consider important. Teaching under such circumstances consists mainly in assigning lessons, conducting recitation, asking questions, checking written work, giving tests, and carrying on many other activities designed to facilitate and insure acquisition of knowledge.

However, if experience results in learning, it becomes clear that all experiences that boys and girls undergo during the school day become important to the teacher. The experiences pupils have in halls, at football games, in cafeterias, and in study halls are important elements in determining their social, emotional, and intellectual development. Teachers must recognize this fact and assume responsibility for the quality of these

PLATE 2

TEACHERS GUIDE PUPILS IN CARRYING ON LEARNING ACTIVITIES. Much of the teacher's school day is spent in classrooms directing the learning experiences of adolescents. (Courtesy of the McCook, Nebraska, Public Schools)

experiences; in other words, they should guide all learning experiences provided by the school. Moreover, they must recognize that experience is complex. One activity may teach many things. For example, a pupil in an algebra class may be mastering the ability to solve equations, but he may at the same time be acquiring habits of accuracy, neatness, and promptness, or just day-dreaming; he may be developing attitudes of cooperation, tolerance, respect for personality, or just arrogance and discourtesy; he may be acquiring an ability to think critically, or learning to bluff; he may be developing an interest in mathematics, or a distaste for it. All these possibilities must be considered by teachers as they guide the learning activities of boys and girls.

Many high schools are giving increased attention to the quality and scope of the learning activities that the student experiences while under their direction. Such schools, of course, attach great importance to the

learning and mastery of subject matter and skills, but in seeking to implement a forward-looking philosophy of secondary education as discussed in Chapter IV, the teachers and administrators of these schools are concerned also with the development of attitudes, of habits of critical thinking, of healthful living, of integrity and high moral character, of ability to make sound value judgments, and of many similar traits and characteristics of personality. Thus while they are providing activities designed to insure ample acquisition of knowledge and skill, they provide ample opportunities for experiences that will help pupils learn to live successfully in a democracy.

Teaching in such high schools becomes a much more challenging professional job than does teaching in a school in which the teacher is primarily an inquisitor. Teachers become interested in giving pupils opportunities to plan cooperatively, to weigh evidence, to work as committees, to exchange and explore points of view, to gather data, to interview, to create, to exercise judgment, to execute plans, to lead, to follow, and to have similar experiences that aid in the development of good citizenship and personal integrity. Teaching becomes a process in furthering the all-round growth of boys and girls. Chapter XVII discusses these various types of teaching activities more fully.

WORKING FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE

Another important professional responsibility of teachers is that of working for the improvement of the entire educational structure. Because of their professional insight into educational problems, teachers are responsible for bringing to the attention of parents, citizens, boards of education, state legislatures, governors, Congress, and similar public agencies recommendations for the improvement of education. It is the duty of teachers, primarily, to protect the interests of the children of America by demanding that the nation, state, and local community provide the best education possible. They must present proposals for improving the local district structure, the financial support of schools, teacher-certification requirements, working conditions for teachers, buildings and equipment, and many similar matters related to the improvement of education.

We also have obligations to our profession. We must join together cooperatively to raise the standards of teaching, to improve teacher-education programs, to carry on research studies that will give us better insight into educational problems, to refine our concepts and points of view —in short, to improve our professional skill and ability. Thereby each of us will be better able to plan and carry forward the kind of education that will contribute maximally to the development of boys and girls.

CONTRIBUTING TO THE IMPROVEMENT OF DEMOCRATIC AMERICA

Teachers, just as other citizens, have general responsibilities of citizenship in the community, the state, the nation, and the world. In fact, teachers perhaps have greater responsibilities of citizenship than do many other persons, for as a group they are better educated, and as counselors and guides of the youth of the community, they are in a position to have better insight into desirable directions for social improvement.

Teachers should expect to take an active role in improving the quality of community living; they should work for beautification of the town or city, for improved recreational opportunities for young people, for good libraries and cultural resources, for better opportunities for underprivileged groups, for less discrimination against racial, national, and religious minority groups, and for any other social and economic changes that will make the community a better place in which to live and to rear boys and girls. Our privileges and responsibilities extend in a similar manner to state, national, and international affairs.

Too many teachers neglect their responsibilities as citizens of their communities. Too often they withdraw from the activities and life of the community and do not concern themselves about its welfare and progress. Such actions tend further to widen the breach between the school and the community. True, some communities resent active participation by teachers in community affairs and resist efforts on the part of teachers to change conditions. Extreme cases of this type, however, are not at all common. Usually teachers may exercise their rights as citizens as freely as anyone else in the community; in fact, they are usually expected to assume leading roles in programs for the enrichment and improvement of community life.

A well-known example of a teacher who became interested in contributing to the improvement of her community is that of Lida Rogers, biology teacher for many years in the high school at Holland, Michigan. For several years prior to 1927, Miss Rogers had been urging her classes to make Holland a center for tulip growing. Ninety per cent of the people of the community are of Dutch descent. During that year, in an address before the Women's Literary Club of the city, she advocated the widespread planting of tulips as a means of beautifying the city and of giving it a distinctive note.

Her idea bore fruit; for the following year the city council authorized the purchase of 100,000 tulip bulbs. These were planted in the curb space along the streets of the city. In the spring of 1929, Holland enjoyed its first Tulip Festival, an occasion that has now attained a national reputa-

tion and one that brings over 500,000 visitors to the city during the week of the festival. From these early beginnings, undertaken at the urging of a civic-minded teacher, the city and its citizens now plant several million tulip bulbs annually.

The schools play a prominent part, not only in the planting and raising of the tulips, but in staging the events connected with the festival. On the opening Saturday of the annual event, the high school girls stage a dance of the "six hundred wooden shoes" under the direction of the physical education teacher of the school; the home economics teacher, who is an authority on Dutch dress, plans the costumes for the dancing groups. The music instructor of the school has charge of the musical aspects of the festival, and the school administrators participate in the community organization that has charge of the affair. Thus we see how teachers, by regarding themselves as integral parts of the community and by welcoming opportunities to assume civic responsibilities, can play a vital role in improving the quality of living in their communities.

LIVING A RICH, PERSONALLY SATISFYING LIFE

The teacher has another responsibility that deserves special mention—that of planning his own day-by-day living so that life will be a rich and personally satisfying experience for him. Discussion of such a matter would be trite if it were not that many teachers fail to find satisfaction in their day-by-day living and that boards of education and citizens in many communities restrict to a greater or lesser degree the personal freedom of their teachers.

In order to have a rich and satisfying life, a person must have wide interests, as well as extensive knowledge of his own field of specialization. Such a person enjoys listening to music, viewing works of art, witnessing sport events, engaging in sports, cultivating flowers or a garden, taking fine photographs or motion pictures, attending the theater, playing games, hiking, skiing, participating in discussion groups, and many similar activities. Teachers can enrich their personalities, and learn to appreciate the work and life of a community, if they too will seek to broaden their interests. Outstanding teachers often are persons who are interesting in their own right, who lead rich, full lives.

The extent to which communities seek to control the personal lives of teachers, fortunately, is declining rapidly. Rules and regulations affecting the kinds of entertainment and recreation in which teachers may engage, the conditions under which they may room or board in the community, their social engagements with the opposite sex, and their personal habits have been all too common in past decades. Although types of informal, and even formal, restrictions still exist in some communities, more and more is the teacher being regarded in all communities as a normal

human being with the same rights and privileges as any other responsible citizen.

Of course no community cares to have its teachers conduct themselves in a dishonorable or disreputable manner. In fact, teachers should adhere to patterns of behavior expected of the most honorable and moral citizens of a community, but there is no reason for singling out teachers as a class and making special rules of moral conduct for them. If they do not exemplify the best patterns of conduct accepted by society, teaching, a profession that is concerned most intimately with the growth and development of young persons, should not be open to them.

What Are the Marks of Successful Teachers?

Why did you like some of your high school teachers better than others? Was it because they were better informed in their fields of teaching specialization, or that they were friendly and cooperative, or that they took a personal interest in you, or was it a combination of many good traits? What are the characteristics and traits of good teachers?

It will be fruitful to analyze the work of teachers to ascertain the qualities that distinguish those who are successful and happy in their profession. Thereby we shall have guides for planning a program of professional development, as well as a basis for evaluating our own potentialities for success as teachers. It is not to be assumed, of course, that a person planning to become a teacher can be a success by blindly imitating someone else or by trying to be a paragon of all the virtues of successful teachers everywhere. Each will want to develop his own unique traits and abilities, but observation and analysis of the work of other teachers will help him in accentuating his strengths and in overcoming weaknesses and deficiencies, as well as aid him in planning his own program of professional growth.

TRAITS ARE NOT DEVELOPED SINGLY

A large measure of caution is necessary in using this technique of listing the earmarks of good teachers; we must not make the foolish error of assuming that the best preparation for teaching is to develop assiduously each of these traits singly and separately to a desirable level, and that thereby we automatically will be successful as teachers. Although it is true that the personality of an individual is reflected through his behavior traits and his overt actions, the converse of this fact, namely, that we can develop a specific type of personality by putting together a collection of behavior traits, is hardly acceptable. Personality is a totality, larger than the sum of its parts; it has uniqueness in and of itself. It is a configuration that defies analysis into discrete elements. At best, we can only single out attributes of personality from the flow of experience.

Therefore in listing qualities found by and large in the most successful

teachers, we must recognize that some of our best teachers may fall far below an acceptable standard in one or more of these traits, yet be among the best in our profession, while other teachers may be rated high on all of these individual traits and still not be outstanding teachers. In general, however, it seems safe to conclude that teachers who do not exhibit outstanding competency in a number, if not most, of these traits will not like teaching; nor will their relations with pupils, administrators, and parents be cordial, friendly, and personally satisfying. In short, the likelihood of their having successful careers as teachers is limited.

THE MARKS OF A GOOD TEACHER

On the basis of extensive surveys of pupils' reactions to teachers and analytical studies of good teaching, the following important qualities and characteristics seem to distinguish the good secondary school teacher:

He enjoys teaching. The good secondary school teacher likes to associate and work with young people. He is much more interested in working with human beings than with material objects. He would rather be in teaching than in any other occupation. He finds his life satisfactions in his work as a teacher.

He has a rich, wholesome personality. In his personal makeup the good secondary teacher exhibits character traits that enhance teacher-pupil relationships and that exemplify for the pupils the types of behavior patterns they should possess. Some of the most important personality traits of successful teachers are

1. Emotional stability and adjustment
2. Friendliness
3. Poise and self-confidence
4. Personal neatness and good grooming
5. A sense of humor
6. Fair-mindedness; justice and fairness in human relationships
7. Sympathy, consideration, and patience
8. Alertness, forcefulness, and energy
9. A pleasant voice, effectively used
10. Consideration for others; respect for the personality of others
11. Congeniality
12. Intellectual alertness and curiosity

Good teachers certainly try to avoid the use of ridicule and sarcasm. They do not nag, threaten, or frighten pupils. They do not show favoritism. They know that if they have disagreeable peculiarities of a physical, social, or mental nature they will find it difficult to establish a cordial, pleasant relationship with their pupils.

He is a good citizen. He contributes to the development and welfare of his community, his state, his nation, and his world. He

seeks to implement in his personal relationships with other people the best tenets of democracy. He deals fairly and justly with his fellow men. He respects the integrity and dignity of those with whom he associates. He is honest, and he exemplifies in his own life the fair-mindedness and sincerity that he expects of others.

He has an adequate working knowledge of the general characteristics of adolescents and of the nature of their growth and development. He knows their developmental needs, their interests, their problems, their emotional tensions, and similar character traits essential for a wise and sympathetic understanding of young people.

He has a sound and adequate conception of the function and purposes of education in a democratic society. He understands the role education plays in the achievement of democratic goals. He seeks to make organized education a constructive force in the development of boys and girls for effective personal and group living in democratic America.

He knows how to guide learning. He has knowledge of the practices and methods of effective teaching and the ability and desire to use them. He can plan wisely for and with youth the kinds of educational experiences necessary for optimum growth and development. He is familiar with the resources for carrying on desirable educational experiences. He knows how to work with boys and girls in making classroom work effective and significant for them.

He has a specialized knowledge of the subject-matter areas or other areas of the school program in which he directs learning. Teachers need, of course, to be specialists in the work that they direct in school. It should be recognized, however, that in some of the modern high schools a teacher's speciality is being a generalist—that is, he may, through some type of core or general education program, direct work in a broad area that requires, not intensive knowledge of a narrow subject-matter field, but broad understanding of the social, political, and economic life of our people.

He provides a favorable emotional climate in the classroom. Classrooms throughout the schools of the nation are characterized by four types of emotional climate: (a) a cold, feelingless atmosphere in which pupils have little interest in the teacher and the teacher little interest in the pupils; (b) an antagonistic atmosphere in which the teacher dislikes the pupils and the pupils dislike the teacher; (c) a sentimental atmosphere in which the teacher is patronizing and excessively interested, at least overtly, in the pupils; (d) a friendly atmosphere in which both teacher and pupils respect each other as individuals and work together cooperatively toward common goals. Obviously, the best classroom situation is the one that exemplifies the friendly emotional climate. Work progresses more smoothly, disciplinary problems are fewer, and everyone finds greater satisfaction in what is being done.

He is an active, growing member of the profession. He continuously seeks to improve his professional skill and competency; he seeks information about new educational research, new studies relating to adolescent growth and development, and new pronouncements by national commissions and similar professional agencies and institutions. The good teacher takes an active part in movements designed to improve the quality of the schools and the status of teachers. Most important of all, in order to widen his own understanding and to coordinate better the efforts of all educators in the development of a unified program of education, he cooperates with his co-workers in stimulating study and discussion.

He has good physical health. The importance of good health for successful teaching is obvious. It is the basis for the physical stamina necessary for sustained effort. A healthy teacher is more likely to be enthusiastic, to be cheerful and pleasant in his relationships with pupils, and to engender a satisfactory classroom atmosphere.

The Importance of Personality

The aforementioned characteristics and competencies point the way to success as a teacher. Some of these traits and abilities are developed largely through our day-by-day living with our fellow men; others are the product of intensive study and work in teacher-education programs. Whatever the source of these character traits, we should realize that we build personality; it is not irrevocably inborn. Personality, as the cultural anthropologist shows, results from the interaction of an individual, who has innate abilities, capacities, drives, and motivations, with his social environment. What he builds into his character out of these experiences, either consciously and deliberately or unconsciously and without plan, will be his personality. The teacher can choose to be friendly, sympathetic, sarcastic, antagonistic, poised, insincere, tolerant, or whatever he chooses to be. He is master of his own character. True, environmental factors, social conditions, family situations, and the like make it difficult at times for a person to maintain stability and balance and to exemplify the best traits of which he is capable, but we know that we are not creatures of chance. In spite of vicissitudes, though, many persons are able to demonstrate the noblest virtues. Those who wish to develop the personality traits that make for success in teaching should deliberately seek to build them by choosing what will remain as a part of character out of life's experiences.

It likewise holds true that the climate of the classroom and of the entire school will greatly influence the personality of the pupils. A happy, friendly, tolerant teacher is likely to have pupils who are happy, friendly, and tolerant. Similarly, an unstable, maladjusted teacher is likely to have a classroom characterized by discontent, disorganization, friction, confusion, and unruliness. An irritable, scolding teacher fosters impudence,

bitterness, and indifference. Such relationships are evident in classrooms everywhere. The school, of course, is just one factor impinging on the emotional development of pupils, and it cannot be charged with full responsibility, but certainly it can play a much more important role than it has in the past. The impact of the personalities of teachers and administrators on pupils influences profoundly their development.

MENTAL HEALTH OF THE TEACHER

If a well-adjusted, emotionally stable teacher is conducive to good personality development on the part of pupils, attention should be given to the mental health of teachers. The persons or groups of persons who play important roles in determining the mental health of the teacher are (a) the teacher himself; (b) school administrative and supervisory officials; (c) the people of the community; (d) professional co-workers; and (e) family and associates.

The teacher. Since the teacher is largely responsible for his adjustment to the world in which he lives and works, he should be familiar with some of the important aspects of good mental health. In the first place, a person who is emotionally stable and well adjusted secures a large measure of satisfaction out of life. Certainly his relationships with other people in the home, school, and community do constitute an important part of these life satisfactions, but they come principally from his work and activities. Almost a prerequisite for happiness and stability is his satisfaction in the work of teaching itself. Satisfaction must come from the guidance of the growth and development of boys and girls, from being a TEACHER. If working with adolescents is not satisfying to him, dangerous shoals lie ahead for him and for his pupils. Most teachers who make a career of teaching find intense satisfaction in their work—in aiding boys and girls to be the kind of persons they should be.

The teacher should, however, also find satisfaction in activities outside the school. His family group, his home, his church, his civic life, and his social activities all offer opportunities for enduring satisfactions and happiness. Hobbies and other avocational interests also are satisfying. One study of maladjusted teachers showed in general that they engaged in little social activity, that they had little or no interest in sports or recreation, and that they did not have hobbies or other engrossing activities outside of the school.[1]

The school administrator. The administrative tone and character of the school may also play an important part in the mental balance and adjustment of teachers. Teachers who work in a harsh, autocratic atmosphere may themselves reflect this frigid, authoritarian condition in their relations with pupils, or, on the other hand, may inwardly rebel

[1] Arthur Gould, "The Mental and Physical Health of Teachers." *School and Society,* **53**:706–711 (May 31), 1941.

against it so strongly that they become instable and adjust poorly to their work. Rigid regimentation, useless tensions, and assignment by school authorities of time-consuming routine of little or no significance are not conducive to good mental health on the part of teachers or to a high degree of morale. Teachers who are forced to work under harsh, unsympathetic, undemocratic conditions will need to face the situation deliberately and endeavor to maintain poise and balance in spite of these unnerving factors. School administration and supervision need to be characterized by respect for the dignity and worth of the individual teacher. They must be thoroughly democratic in concept and operation. Particularly important, they must provide good conditions for mental health. Teachers not only need to feel that their jobs are legally secure; they also need to feel secure in carrying on their classroom work and experimentation. Any insecurity they feel brings about detrimental classroom conditions.

The community. The status accorded teachers by the community may be important in determining the satisfactions that accrue to teachers. A community that accepts teachers as an important professional group, essential to the welfare and improvement of society as a whole, is doing much to assure a stable and enthusiastic corps of teachers. By accepting teachers as its citizens and according them their rightful place in its social, economic, religious, and political life the community contributes to the security of the staff. This security will inevitably be reflected in better morale and better atmosphere in the classrooms.

Communities that restrict the rights and privileges of teachers, that prescribe the nature of some of their social, religious, and political activities are inviting trouble; certainly they are indicating to young persons of the community that the teachers are not dependable, trustworthy, and normal. How are teachers to find their work thoroughly satisfying under such conditions?

Of course, such factors as salary, tenure, retirement, and welfare provisions that within limits set by the state are prerogatives of the community, at least as represented by its board of education, are also important factors in determining security, morale, and job satisfactions.

Professional co-workers. Fellow teachers may aid their coworkers in becoming better adjusted to the school and to the community. Acceptance by the group is certainly an important factor in maintaining good mental adjustment and in promoting satisfaction. Although it might be said that new teachers should win the respect and acceptance of their colleagues with their professional competency and wholesome personality, it seems clear that the established group may do much to smooth the way and to promote cooperativeness and group solidarity among new members of the staff. Numerous studies in personnel work and in sociometry demonstrate the importance of group acceptance in the development of morale, in the attainment of high quality of work, and in the real-

ization of satisfaction with one's work. An able young man left the principalship of a secondary school at the end of one year because he felt that he had not been accepted by his staff. The fault may or may not have been his, but the case illustrates the importance of group acceptance.

Family and associates. Family and home conditions obviously have an important bearing on the mental health of the teacher. A teacher who comes from a friendly, cooperative family group that provides emotional satisfaction to all members is likely to be friendly and cooperative too. Conversely, disturbing home conditions leave their marks on the teacher and are reflected in his work with boys and girls. True, teachers cannot always choose or determine home situations; where they are not good, the teacher will need to face conditions calmly and try to maintain poise and balance even under trying circumstances.

Studies tend to show that married teachers, both men and women, are better adjusted than single teachers. Yet school practice in this country favors the single woman teacher; sometimes teachers who marry are actually prohibited from continuing in the profession. Studies seem to indicate, too, that there is more maladjustment among single women teachers who live with, and in whole or part support, dependent parents than among other groups. Teachers often cannot choose their family situations, but if they recognize the exact nature of their obstacles, they can overcome to some degree the deteriorating influences. Single women teachers should seek social activities with persons of their own age groups; they should cultivate interests, hobbies, and activities in their personal living that will help overcome the lack of satisfactions growing out of happy family situations.

Teachers need a circle of close friends. These friends should include persons of about the same age and persons of both sexes. One of the problems facing single women teachers is that of joining in social activities with men. Married couples usually fail to invite single teachers to social activities, and it is difficult for such teachers to take the initiative in these matters.

Why Be a Teacher?

It is well at this point to summarize the factors in teaching that make it a worth-while profession and a desirable career for young persons who have the abilities, traits, and capacities that make for success in it. Among the things that make teaching attractive are

OPPORTUNITY TO GUIDE THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG ADOLESCENTS

The role of the teacher in effecting, through the education of the young, the kind of world we will have is indeed challenging. Only those who understand the importance of this responsibility and are willing

to accept it should consider entering the profession. Because of the extent to which a teacher must deal with subtle psychological and personal qualities and capacities, it is a more complex professional job than any other with the possible exception of medicine.

CONTINUING CHALLENGE TO GROW AND LEARN

Teachers have more opportunities for education than have most adults; and they are expected to continue their studies. In fact, no one should remain in teaching unless he is willing to grow professionally. The very nature of the teacher's work usually stimulates him to further growth; he will want to read for increased knowledge in his field of special interest, as well as for general cultural understanding, to participate in professional discussions, to write, and to prepare new materials.

OPPORTUNITY FOR CREATIVE WORK

Certainly working with young persons is anything but deadening. Each new day, each new class or activity, challenges the creativeness of the teacher—new problems and new opportunities constantly arise. Guiding the development of personality and character is as creative a type of work as anyone could wish for, and from this creativeness comes a real sense of achievement. Teachers realize great satisfaction from the fact that they in no small measure are responsible for the attainments and accomplishments of their pupils. They enjoy many vicarious thrills from the successes achieved by their pupils or their former pupils.

AID IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF SOCIETY

Teachers are engaged in one of the greatest of social services; sometimes they are called "human or social engineers." They probably have greater opportunity than have other occupational groups to influence social development and to guide the ultimate destinies of their fellow men. Evidence of this is found in the extent to which governments throughout history have sought to use teachers and schools to maintain their control or to extend it. In Hitlerite Germany the schools were used tyrannically to influence social development. Democratic America has demonstrated how the school may be correctly used in social service.

MEMBERSHIP IN A RESPECTED PROFESSION

In spite of the minor indignities heaped on teachers in certain isolated communities, for the most part teachers are highly respected by the people of their community, and their importance to the welfare of the community is recognized.

PROVISIONS FOR THE WELFARE OF THE TEACHER

Although teachers as a group are at present excluded from coverage under the social security plans of the federal government, most

teachers have opportunities to join state retirement plans of some type. In addition, large numbers of teachers are assured permanent tenure through state and local tenure plans so long as they fulfill their responsibilities adequately. Most of the better school systems provide for sick leave, and some provide for maternity leave.

ASSOCIATION WITH CONGENIAL CO-WORKERS

Teachers compose a highly selected group of well-educated and professionally trained persons. In the main, they are interesting and worth-while people to know, and fine people with whom to work.

PLEASANT WORKING CONDITIONS

Many teachers work in pleasant surroundings, in fireproof buildings that are clean, neat, and well maintained. Most communities take pride in providing fine school buildings. Some teachers, it is acknowledged, must work in old buildings that need to be replaced—buildings that are poorly lighted, unsightly and ill-suited to school purposes, but in the course of a life career such surroundings usually constitute a minor part of the total working conditions. Another factor making for pleasant working conditions is the holiday schedule. Extended holiday vacations at Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter, and the like are the envy of other occupational groups. Also, there is the long summer vacation that permits extended travel, rest, further study, and the like. Some teachers, of course, say that these vacation periods are at their own expense, with loss of income during the summer months. Although this is true, the basis of comparison is faulty. Teachers should compare their annual incomes with those of various other occupational groups.

THE SALARY FACTOR

It is debatable whether salary should be listed as a favorable or unfavorable factor. Teachers' salaries will be discussed later, but here it should be pointed out that salaries for secondary teachers vary widely in different situations. In a number of progressive states and communities, salaries are on a professional level, and when coupled with permanent tenure offer a life income that compares favorably with the average life income of other professional groups. On the other hand, in many communities the secondary school teacher is paid less than many unskilled or semiskilled workers; the salary is not sufficient to provide more than the bare necessities of life, and it is certainly inadequate in terms of the professional ability and skill required of a good teacher. When a person is making a decision as to whether or not to enter teaching, he naturally must take into consideration the expected life income, but he should also weigh all factors congenial to teaching, not the salary factor alone.

Factors Unfavorable to Teaching

Those contemplating a career in teaching should consider conditions that militate against full self-expression and self-realization. Some unfavorable factors in teaching are

CULTIVATION OF AN AUTHORITARIAN AND DOMINEERING ATTITUDE

Because teachers work with adolescents, it is easy for many of them to develop an attitude of domination and to be intolerant of nonconformity and differences of opinion. In their relationships with others, many teachers may seek to impose their views, to insist on acceptance of their plans and beliefs. The newer concepts of teaching and the newer methods of guiding the learning experiences of children, as well as the introduction of more democratic procedures in school administration, have aided greatly in eliminating authoritarianism in teaching. In fact, many teachers in their daily association with other persons of the community exemplify democratic principles to a better degree than do most other members of the community. It is desirable that they should.

MANAGEMENT OF YOUNG PEOPLE

For many persons the task of directing and managing large numbers of adolescents in the course of a school day is an exhausting mental and physical experience. Disciplinary problems are the bane of teachers. Handling troublesome pupils has occasionally taxed the ingenuity of even the best of teachers.

RESTRICTIONS ON PERSONAL FREEDOM

Too many communities still prescribe some phases of the personal behavior of the teacher, either by definite rules and regulations or by the weight of community opinion. Teachers are set off as a special occupational group, whose personal lives must in part be regulated. Such puritanical restrictions are irksome to teachers and deter many able persons from entering the profession.

OVERBURDEN OF WORK

The teacher's job is a heavy responsibility under the best of circumstances; when his schedule of assigned classes and duties is too eavy, when his classes are too large, or when he has too much detailed and routine work he may find the physical and nervous strain difficult to bear.

INSECURITY

Insecurity still plagues too many American teachers. Even with legal provisions for tenure, teachers may be shifted to unsuitable assignments, be moved from school to school, or in other ways be "pun-

ished" by authorities. Even less fortunate are large numbers of teachers who are not covered by legal permanent-tenure regulations and who are at the mercy of the whims of the boards of education and school administrators.

RESTRICTIONS ON MARRIAGE

Marriage is frequently a factor militating against the employment of women teachers. Many school systems refuse initial appointment to married women; others require women teachers to resign when they marry. When there is a scarcity of teachers, of course, there is less discrimination; however, as soon as there is a surplus, regulations against married teachers are reenforced.

UNSATISFACTORY LIVING CONDITIONS

Teachers frequently find difficulty in securing satisfactory housing and living arrangements. Most single teachers work in school systems outside their home towns. They must board and room in whatever accommodations they can find. Normal housing conditions are usually impossible to procure, especially by the young, beginning teacher who frequently spends his early years in small-town systems.

While these aspects of teaching and of the teacher's life may not be pleasant, persons who enjoy working with boys and girls and who understand the challenge of teaching will not be easily deterred but will join this great profession and exert every effort to correct the shortcomings.

Prerequisites for Entrance into the Teaching Profession

Now that the nature of teaching and the opportunities and responsibilities of teachers have been considered, it is appropriate to discuss the personal qualifications needed for a successful career in teaching.

From all that has been stated previously in this chapter, it seems apparent that persons who are interested in entering teaching should possess the following characteristics:

A WELL-INTEGRATED, EMOTIONALLY STABLE PERSONALITY

The relation of personality to successful teaching has already been discussed. In view of this importance, persons should not consider entering the teaching profession, nor should they be permitted to do so by teacher-education institutions, if they have a record of emotional and social instability, or of a lack of good personality balance. While individuals determined to do so can rebuild personality and redirect behavior patterns, the process is slow and difficult, and it is questionable whether

colleges and universities should be charged with the responsibility of persons who have records of instability and maladjustment.

PHYSICAL FITNESS

The prospective teacher should be in good health and give every indication that he will continue to have physical vigor and vitality. All prospective candidates for teaching should undergo thorough physical examinations, including chest x rays and blood tests. Follow-up examinations should be made periodically. Persons with physical defects that may hinder them in effective work with pupils should not enter the profession. Speech defects are especially serious in this respect.

DEEP-SEATED INTEREST IN TEACHING AND IN WORKING WITH PEOPLE

The teacher's interest in his profession—in working with people—should be much stronger than his transitory desire "to teach," or to earn money on graduation. It should be rooted in a long record of concern for others, of good working relationships with persons of all age groups. The candidate should be more concerned about the development of boys and girls than about his skill in imparting subject matter. He should see his career as an opportunity for service to society of the highest order.

ADEQUATE INTELLIGENCE AND A GOOD EDUCATIONAL RECORD

Teaching requires a high level of ability to think through problems, to secure and analyze information and data, and to organize one's stock of knowledge. Those considering teaching as a career should be intellectually curious; they should be able to explore new areas of knowledge.

FACILITY IN COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Candidates for teaching should possess a high level of competency in communication skills. Effective use of oral and written English and knowledge of the arts are especially important. Not only does the teacher himself need to be effective in communication; he needs to be able to develop communicative ability in boys and girls.

ABIDING FAITH IN AND PRACTICE OF DEMOCRACY AS A WAY OF LIFE

Certainly schools for democracy should have teachers who themselves live democratically. Verbal allegiance to the tenets of democracy is not enough; the prospective teacher must exemplify democratic

principles in his relations with other people. Democracy is a way of life and teachers must themselves be shining examples of this way of life.

GOOD MORAL CHARACTER

The person who has a well-integrated personality and who lives the democratic way of life will undoubtedly have a good, moral character. His acts will be governed by his concept of the good life for all men, which seems to be the essence of morality. For purposes of emphasis, though, and to draw specific attention to the importance of good character, it is listed here as a separate prerequisite for prospective teachers. Parents generally will be unwilling to entrust their children to teachers who themselves do not live in accordance with the best moral standards of society. The influence of teacher personality on pupil personality is too pronounced for us to discount the importance of good character among teachers.

Most teacher-education institutions nowadays give careful attention to the selection of candidates for teaching. Guidance is offered those interested in the profession, and anyone who does not measure up sufficiently in these essential characteristics is encouraged to take up some other occupational training that is better suited to his abilities and traits. Students interested in entering professional schools of education should evaluate carefully their qualifications for teaching. If they do not feel that they will succeed in teaching, it would be wise for them to change their occupational choice.

Elements in Preparation for Secondary School Teaching

Teaching, as we have indicated in this chapter, is a highly skilled profession, and preparation for teaching in the secondary school must be broad, thorough, and comprehensive. The prospective teacher, to meet the needs of democracy's schools, should have a broad pattern of experiences designed to provide the following six types of competencies:

1. Understanding of the cultural and social life of democratic America and of the basis for the development of effective citizenship.
2. Conception of the purposes and function of education in a democratic society.
3. Professional skill in guiding the growth and development of adolescents.
4. Command of the specialized knowledge and subject matter needed in carrying forward the teacher's duties in the school.
5. Understanding of professional problems and the capacity for being an active, growing member of the profession.
6. Ability to live a personally satisfying life.

Aspects of each of these elements in the preparation for teaching will be considered briefly.

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UNDERSTANDING OF DEMOCRATIC AMERICA

One of the most important single elements in the education of teachers is the development of a genuine understanding of America—its people, its material resources, its institutions, its traditions, its set of values, its problems, its achievements, its cultural heritage, and its promise for the future. Coupled closely with the development of this understanding is the development of a basis for effective citizenship in this democratic culture. In educational phraseology this phase of education is commonly called "general education." Obviously, this aspect of the educational program for prospective teachers could encompass a large body of subject matter and a large variety of experiences; so teacher-education

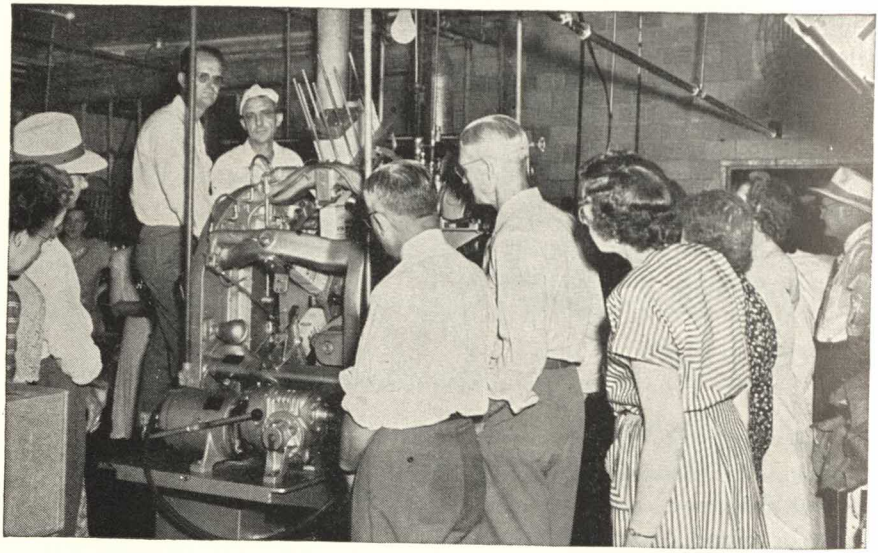

PLATE 3

TEACHERS STUDY THEIR COMMUNITY AND ITS RESOURCES. Learning activities become more meaningful when teachers can relate the work of the classroom to the life of the community. (Courtesy of the Grand Island, Nebraska, Public Schools)

institutions must select wisely the elements to be included in the general education of teachers. The teachers shown in Plate 3 are visiting a local industry during the school workshop period held prior to the opening of school. By learning first hand about the community they are better able to relate school and community experiences of pupils.

Many institutions provide for the general education of their students by prescribing group requirements in various specialized areas of human knowledge. The student is required to take a specified number of college credits in individual courses in the fields of science, social studies, humanities, and the like. A more recent approach to general education in some

institutions is to develop special courses that provide a survey and perhaps critical study of broad areas of the cultural heritage, such as the social sciences, the humanities, and the sciences. This procedure offers much promise, for it provides a more integrated concept of the vast knowledge extant in the various fields of learning.

A third approach to general education is that of utilizing the needs and interests of the students themselves as areas for organizing study and work. Students play a prominent role in determining what is studied and what knowledge is used in general education programs. The problems that students face while living and working in a democratic society are considered. Subject matter is utilized as it bears on the problem under consideration. Some institutions provide, in addition to formal study, first-hand experience in gaining a better understanding of the American culture. Students on the preservice level work with community agencies, study community forces and structure, travel, or engage in work-experience projects and similar activities.

Actually, many teacher-education institutions draw on several of these approaches to general education and endeavor to capitalize on some of the advantages of all three methods. Regardless of the method, it is commonly agreed that the general education of teachers should include at least these important elements:

1. Development of an understanding of
   - Basic tenets of the democratic faith
   - The loyalties and the discipline of free men
   - The structure of American society
   - Relation of man to the social structure
   - Impact of culture on the development of the individual
   - The struggle to liberate the human mind
   - The stresses and tensions in our society
   - The resources, achievements, and promise of American democracy
   - Evolution of American democracy
   - The social ideas, philosophies, and programs that are competing for survival and mastery in the world
   - The methods and agencies of propaganda
   - Agencies, institutions, and procedures for achieving the promise of our democratic society
   - The social forces, mores, and structure of American communities
   - World interdependence and need of world-wide cooperation
   - Human relations and the ways in which people live and work together as social groups in the community, the nation, and the world
2. Development of ability to
   - Analyze the social forces and structure of communities in which they may live
   - Utilize effectively means of communication
   - Engage in cooperative, interactive group processes

Exercise the rights of democratic citizenship
Accept the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy
Resolve their own personal problems of living intelligently
Participate in happy, congenial, satisfactory relations with members of their own family group
Maintain good personal health
Organize thinking effectively
Establish satisfactory relationships with their associates

3. Development of an interest in
Current affairs
The creative arts
World affairs
Recreational activities

4. Development of sensitivity to
The problems of minority groups
The problems of maintaining peace throughout the world
National problems of the nations of the world
Moral values in human relationships

General education is a lifelong program. Teachers, particularly, should never cease to examine, refine, and expand their conceptions of democratic society and of their role in its maintenance and improvement. During the period of formal schooling, a large part of the student's program should be devoted to general education.

CONCEPTION OF THE PURPOSES AND FUNCTION OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

Teachers will never be fully effective in guiding youth unless they envisage clearly the purposes that education should serve in our society. Direction and unity for the day-by-day work of the teacher come from his point of view about the nature of the entire educational process. Most experiences in which high school pupils engage in school will have some learning value. The job of the teacher is to choose experiences that will contribute maximally to the growth of boys and girls along desirable and socially approved lines. Before teachers can judge the worthwhileness of various types of experiences that may be provided by the school they must develop a thoroughly satisfactory conception of what the good life is and how the school can best contribute to a realization of it.

To aid the prospective teacher in formulating a philosophy of education, teacher-education institutions provide professional training, such as courses in the history of education, the principles of education, the philosophy of education, the school in contemporary society, and the like. Actually, these institutions include some philosophy of education in all their courses. The student should constantly be seeking to build a con-

sistent, sound point of view about the educational process. Much of his work in general education will serve well in developing this understanding.

PROFESSIONAL SKILL IN GUIDING THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF ADOLESCENTS

Professional skill is the main concern of teacher-education institutions. It is the main stock in trade of the teacher. Ability to guide human growth and development is the thing that primarily distinguishes the teacher from the parent, who also teaches the child, and from any well-educated person who may work with young persons. There are many aspects of the professional education of teachers, but only a few major elements will be listed:

1. Understanding of
   - Growth characteristics of adolescents
   - The nature of learning and how it takes place
   - Individual differences among pupils
   - Effects of cultural conditions and processes on the growth and development of boys and girls
   - The developmental needs of youth
   - Research bearing on improvement of teaching
2. Ability to
   - Plan maximally effective learning experiences with and for youth, in both classroom situations and in out-of-classroom activities
   - Plan and carry out procedures for evaluating pupil growth and development
   - Study the behavior patterns and developmental characteristics of individual pupils
   - Select subject matter useful for the solution of problems
   - Work with a group of adolescents
   - Select and utilize effectively a variety of materials for carrying forward learning activities
   - Work with parents in planning for the all-round growth of the pupil
   - Utilize the resources of the community in carrying forward learning activities
   - Manage a classroom situation

The development of such professional competency is an exceedingly exacting and comprehensive responsibility. Teacher-education institutions need to plan the most vital types of learning experiences possible for prospective teachers. Included in the program should be many opportunities for students to have firsthand experience in working with boys and girls, as well as with community agencies and youth-serving organizations.

COMMAND OF SPECIALIZED KNOWLEDGE AND SUBJECT MATTER

Secondary school teachers need specialized knowledge of a body of subject matter as a basis for effective work as members of the school staff. For most persons preparing for teaching at the present time, this means specialization in one or more fields of knowledge as they are now organized in the offerings of the secondary school. Studies of teacher assignments show that most beginning teachers and even many experienced teachers must teach in more than one subject field. Thus the usual procedure for teachers is to specialize in a field of major interest but also to take enough course work in another subject field to be fully prepared to teach in that field. Advisers and directors of teacher-placement bureaus are well informed on desirable combinations of teaching fields. In large city high schools, such as the one depicted in Plate 4, specialists in many phases of education are needed.

PLATE 4

TEACHERS NEED SPECIALIZED KNOWLEDGE. Secondary school teachers should become specialists in some phase of the educational program. (Courtesy of the New York Public Schools)

Prospective teachers should not overlook the fact that some of the more progressive secondary schools of today want specialists in general education. The opportunities are limited, but more and more high schools are introducing core programs of general education, and probably an even

greater number would do so if trained teachers were available. Specialization for other types of positions in the secondary school, such as principals, supervisors, counselors, directors of teaching aids, and the like, usually is limited to the graduate level, and persons interested in such positions must first prove themselves to be skilled teachers of boys and girls.

UNDERSTANDING OF PROFESSIONAL PROBLEMS

Every teacher should be well informed on educational matters and should be able to play a prominent part in the advancement of education. Teachers are more than routine workers in the mass production of an educated generation; they are members of a great and important profession. As such, they have obligations to the profession—obligations to work with fellow teachers in improving the educational program, in strengthening the administrative structure, in improving the status of members of the profession, and in improving working conditions and facilities.

Some of the most important educational and professional matters on which teachers need information are

The legal basis of education
The organization and structure of education
Methods of supporting schools
The control of public education, and the responsibilities of the federal government, the state government, and local boards of education
Policies of local boards of education
The duties and responsibilities of various administrative and supervisory officials of schools
The basis for satisfactory relationships between school and community
Types, purposes, and programs of professional organizations
The code of ethics for teachers
Provisions for the welfare and security of teachers

ABILITY TO LIVE A PERSONALLY SATISFYING LIFE

Among teacher characteristics, this chapter has already emphasized strongly the desirability—yes, the necessity—of a rich, well-integrated personality. This is the most difficult of all competencies for teacher-education institutions to develop. In fact, the point was made that if prospective teachers lack emotional stability, they should probably not enter teacher-training institutions. If students possess mental and social balance, however, the colleges can do much to improve the quality of their living.

Teachers need a breadth and depth of interests, and colleges can do much to help them. They can offer opportunities for self-expression in creative mediums, they can provide or at least suggest leisure-time and

recreational interests of noncreative types, and they can present reading and study programs that combine recreational and professional activities. Much of the program already discussed as general education, of course, serves as an important basis for developing a rich personality.

If students have an opportunity to work under competent guidance toward the solution of their personal problems they make a more satisfying life adjustment and have a better integrated personality. Professional institutions that offer students help in building a philosophy of life—a set of values—are among the more desirable.

A broad program for the education of teachers has been envisaged through the brief statements presented in this section. Teaching in the modern school undoubtedly requires this varied program of education at the preservice level. A person cannot hope to become a skilled and effective member of the profession unless he has had extensive experience with adolescents, adults, community agencies, and social institutions; unless he has an understanding of the cultural heritage; and unless he has the specialized knowledge of his profession. Because teaching is so complex, many educational leaders realize that the length of preservice education should be extended to five or six years if teachers are to be ready to do a professional job in their first regular teaching position.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The growth and development of teachers obviously do not end on graduation from the teacher-education institution. Further study and understanding are necessary for attainment of maximum professional skill. Most school systems have some type of program for education while in service; in any event, the teacher should see that his educational and social growth do not stop after he leaves the teacher-education institution.

The better programs of in-service education provide plenty of opportunities for teachers to work cooperatively on the improvement of their abilities as teachers. Building-wide or system-wide study and discussion groups are common. Committee work on some vital project is widely used for in-service training. Demonstrations and visitation are also used. One effective method of improving understanding and skill while on the job is experimentation with new methods, new procedures, new materials, and new approaches in teaching traditional subjects, or experimentation with new units and new types of experiences. Preparing new teaching materials, such as resource units, reading and study materials, and guides for improved school practices offers a valuable means for professional growth.

The workshop is a recent development in the area of in-service education. The workshop program is simply a method of providing opportunities for teachers, including administrative and supervisory personnel, to work cooperatively on group or individual problems related to im-

provement of the educational program. Workshops may be conducted during the school or summer period by the local school system or by teacher-education institutions.

On an individual basis, teachers may continue their own education by reading, by taking advanced study at colleges or universities, or in a variety of informal ways. Travel, summer-work experiences, work with social agencies, and the like are all worth while.

Genuine in-service education should cover much the same areas as preservice education, but of course on a different level of experience. General education is as important a part of in-service education as it is of preservice programs. A teacher's growth and development should truly never end.

Certification of Teachers

Like members of other professions, teachers must be licensed by the state in order to practice. All of the forty-eight states set up requirements for the issuance of such licenses or certificates, although those in Massachusetts are limited in scope and have just recently been enacted. The mere fact that the state requires such a license to teach indicates the importance attached to the profession by society.

PURPOSES OF CERTIFICATION

Certification of teachers by the state serves the following purposes:

Assures boards of education, children, and parents that a teacher will have a minimum of preparation for teaching as prescribed by the state
Prevents those not prepared or fit to teach from competing for positions with properly qualified teachers
Constitutes a legal means of raising professional requirements and standards
Requires continued professional education on the part of teachers
Provides a basis for legal control of professional practices and ethics
Aids in professionalization of teaching

By means of the certification procedure, the state or its agencies aid boards of education in employing persons who have at least a minimum of professional skill. Of all the persons who at the moment might be interested in teaching, the state specifies that only those who have made special preparation of one type or another are eligible. Pupils are thus in a measure protected against persons who may be attracted temporarily by the possibility of earning money at their expense and against cranks or others who want to teach adolescents, perhaps for ulterior motives. If the certification procedure is thoroughgoing and really designed to prevent poorly fitted persons from securing employment, it is apparent that it serves important ends.

Licensing also protects those who have spent a great deal of time, effort, and money in preparing for teaching against ruthless competition by the untrained. It better assures a position for the student when he completes his preservice education. Other professions generally control in one way or another the number who may be trained and subsequently licensed, so that ruthless competition, which works to the detriment of all, will not result. The teaching profession does well to exercise similar controls through the licensing procedure.

Through certification, the state may legally raise, from time-to-time, the requirements for entering the profession. Today few states hold to the same requirements they had a decade ago. Society wants teachers to be better prepared, and its demands are reflected in higher qualifications for certification. The state may also demand additional professional study for continuance in the profession. Most initial certificates are issued for a limited number of years, and renewal or issuance of a new certificate requires some formal evidence of professional growth, such as further college work, successful experience, and the like. Thus states legally compel in-service education for many teachers.

In many states, licensing is also used as a means of enforcing adherence to ethical practices. Certificates may be invalidated because of convictions for crimes, immoral conduct, or violations of school laws. For example, one state authorizes that the chief state educational official suspend a certificate if a teacher fails to fulfill a legal contract to teach.

Finally, teachers themselves feel that certification by the state aids in greater professionalization of teachers. Most of the benefits of certification discussed previously contribute to this greater professionalization.

BASIS FOR CERTIFICATION

Specific requirements for certification vary from state to state; moreover, they are constantly being revised. Therefore no attempt will be made here to list requirements by states. Teachers interested in teaching in a particular state will need to secure a statement of requirements of the state and be guided accordingly.

Major requirements for certification fall in five categories. A word of caution, however, is needed here—many states have a special licensing procedure for certain specialized teachers, such as teachers of vocational subjects, music, and art; the statements made here will not apply in full to these teachers. Also, most states have a procedure for issuing temporary certificates to take care of emergency situations. Such certificates are granted on special conditions set up by the state.

Amount of college work. States specify the amount of college work required for certification. For teaching in four-year high schools or three-year senior high schools most teachers must hold an undergraduate degree from a recognized institution of collegiate rank. For teaching

in the junior high school, grades seven to nine, a number of states do not require a bachelor's degree, but specify two or three years of college work. In 1949, five states—Arizona, California, New York, Oregon, and Washington—required in addition to a bachelor's degree, a year of graduate study as a basis for initial certification for general secondary school teaching.

Professional preparation. All states specify some type of professional education for secondary school teachers. Usually the regulations state the total number of college credits required in education courses and also list specific courses or types of training that must be included. Most states require from eighteen to twenty-four semester hours of education courses. Course requirements frequently include work in educational psychology, principles of education, methods of teaching, and apprentice teaching.

General courses. A number of states prescribe college work in various subject-matter areas, presumably to assure a well-rounded education. Mississippi, for example, requires of all candidates twelve hours in English, nine in the social sciences, six in science, and two in physical education and health. New Jersey requires twelve hours in English, twelve in social studies, and six in science.

Subject-matter specialization. For secondary school teachers, most states list requirements relative to specialization in subject-matter fields. They may specify the minimum number of college credits or simply that a major or minor is required in the field of teaching specialization. Usually the fields of specialization are stated on the certificate, and some states restrict teaching to these subjects.

Special requirements. A number of states have special requirements of one type or another. A health certificate is a common requirement. Some states require that the applicant take a special course or be able to pass an examination in the school laws of the state, or on the state constitution, or some other subject deemed essential. For example, Arizona, California, Nevada, New Hampshire, Oregon, Texas, and Washington all require that work in the national, and in some cases the state, constitution be taken in a local institution of the state, or that an examination in the subject be passed. Nebraska requires a course dealing with the harmful effects of narcotics and stimulants; Rhode Island requires practice teaching in the schools of Rhode Island but waives this qualification for certain provisional certificates.

TRENDS IN CERTIFICATION PROCEDURES

An important step in the improvement of certification methods has been the adoption in a number of states of the practice of issuing licenses only on the recommendation of recognized teacher-education institutions. The alternative practice is for the state to issue a certificate to anyone who can meet the formal requirements set by law or regulation.

When certificates are issued only on approval of an institution, the institution may exercise control over those who may enter the teacher-education program, and it may also control the nature of the program, beyond the mere formal requirements of the law, by recommending for certification only those who have followed a specified program. The merits of such a plan for improved teacher education are obvious to professional teachers.

Another practice that is gaining acceptance among the states is to place the right to set specific requirements for certificates in the state board of education or a comparable board, and to remove from the statutes many of the details of certification. This permits easier adjustment of the requirements to changing conditions.

There is also a tendency on the part of the states to restrict the issuance of certificates good for life. Some states do not issue life certificates; a number of others, by requiring extensive professional training beyond the requirements of the initial certificate, as well as a record of successful experience, make it extremely difficult to secure a life permit. There are arguments both for and against the issuance of life certificates. On the one hand, it is contended that members of other professions do not have to present additional evidence of professional fitness after the initial admission to the profession—that evidence of malpractice is the only basis on which a practicing member may be refused his professional license. It is also maintained that if a person is once qualified to teach he will remain equally or more competent thereafter. Arguments against licensing for life are, in effect, that professional standards for teaching are gradually being raised and that it is difficult if not impossible to impose higher standards on holders of life certificates. Life certification may lead to complacency, and the holder may make little or no effort to keep abreast of rapidly expanding fields of knowledge.

Many authorities believe that not only initial certification but continuing renewal should be selective. They would like to have the state licensing authority secure evidence at each renewal period of the competency and success of the applicant and to have it refuse renewal to those who prove to be unqualified emotionally, physically, or professionally for teaching. The problems in carrying out such a plan are many; nevertheless, steps need to be taken to protect boys and girls against the dangers of teachers with infectious disease, neurosis, mental instability, or general incompetency. The problem society hasn't solved is what to do with the person who has devoted his life to teaching but who becomes unfit to continue in the classroom.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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Baxter, Bernice, *Teacher-Pupil Relationships.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941.

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Bigelow, Karl W., "How about General Education for Teachers?" *Journal of General Education,* 1:99–106 (January), 1947.

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Discusses the competencies and abilities needed by teachers in secondary schools. A penetrating analysis.

Commission on Teacher Education, *Cultural and Social Elements in the Education of Teachers.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940.

This pamphlet contains two addresses, one on the program of general education for teachers and the other on the social responsibility of teachers.

———, *The Improvement of Teacher Education.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1946.

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———, *Teachers for Our Times.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

Chapter IV is a significant statement on the kinds of teachers needed in our schools today. Lists desirable qualities of good teachers.

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Gould, Arthur, "The Mental and Physical Health of Teachers," *School and Society,* 53:706–711 (May 31), 1941.

A study of teacher absenteeism and the characteristics of teachers who are maladjusted or who become institutional cases.

McCuskey, Dorothy, "I Choose Teaching," *NEA Journal,* 36:174–175 (March), 1947.

One teacher states why teaching is her only choice for a career.

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *Group Reports of the Bowling Green Conference.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948.

A summary of the deliberations of various committees at the third annual conference on teacher education. The report on the qualities that make for success in teaching is especially significant.

National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers, *Fit to Teach.* Ninth Yearbook; Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1938.

The summary of an extensive questionnaire study of the health problems of teachers. There is also a summary of numerous research studies on various aspects of the subject.

Prall, Charles E., and Leslie C. Cushman, *Teacher Education in Service.* A Report of the Commission on Teacher Education; Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

An interpretative account of the experiences of public school systems associated in the commission's program. It shows how ten school systems worked to improve teachers in service.

Robinson, Donald W., *Analysis of Motives for the Choice of a Teaching Career.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1944.

A questionnaire and interview study of teachers or prospective teachers to ascertain reasons why they choose teaching for a career.

Rummell, Frances V., "What Are Good Teachers Like?" *School Life,* 30:4–9, 7–11 (June, July), 1948.

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Symonds, Percival M., "Personality of Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research,* 40:652–661 (May), 1947.

A summary of a number of studies made by the author on personality factors related to success in teaching and the personality adjustment problems of teachers.

"These Are Our Concerns," *Educational Leadership,* 5:145–154 (December), 1947.

Excerpts from letters of beginning teachers showing the kinds of problems teachers face and the kinds of help they need during their early years of service.

Witty, Paul, "An Analysis of the Personality Traits of the Effective Teacher," *Journal of Educational Research,* 40:662–671 (May), 1947.
An analysis of traits listed by 12,000 pupils in letters written to nominate teachers for awards in a national contest on the teacher who has helped them most.

Woellner, Robert C., and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Junior Colleges* (14th ed.), 1949–1950. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949.
An annual digest of certification requirements in the various states.

II OPPORTUNITIES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Persons interested in being teachers naturally want to know something about opportunities in the profession and about the status of teachers. This chapter will consider such matters as employment opportunities open to persons prepared to teach in secondary schools, methods whereby teachers secure positions, salaries that may be expected, tenure and security provisions, and similar matters relating to the welfare of teachers.

Employment Opportunities for Secondary School Teachers

NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Over 300,000 persons hold positions in the public secondary schools of the United States. Slightly over 36,000 are employed in private secondary schools. In addition, many other educators hold professional positions closely allied to secondary education; these are college instructors in secondary education, staff members of state departments of education, associate superintendents in charge of secondary education, and the like. Thus secondary school educators comprise the largest professional group in the nation; for lawyers number only about 180,000, doctors about 165,000, engineers about 290,000, and clergymen about 165,000. All together, teachers as a professional group number slightly over 1,000,000 persons.

The number of teachers, principals, and supervisors employed in the public secondary schools of each state, for the school year 1945–1946 is shown in Table 1. A few states do not report secondary school principals and supervisors separately; hence absence of data in the columns for some states simply indicates that the figures are not available, not that there are no such persons in the secondary schools. The figures include teachers in all types of secondary schools—regular high schools, secondary vocational schools, and reorganized junior-senior high schools.

The rapid expansion that has occurred in the corps of public secondary school teachers since 1900 is shown in Table 2. In 1899–1900, approximately 20,000 persons were sufficient to staff our public secondary schools. A short four decades later, over 300,000 were employed in these schools. The increase is over fifteenfold—truly a phenomenal growth.

Moreover, the number has almost trebled since 1920. It will be noted, however, that the creation of new secondary school positions began to level off toward 1940, and in the past few years the number employed has actually declined somewhat, owing undoubtedly to the drop in pupil enrollments.

FUTURE DEMANDS FOR SECONDARY TEACHERS

In surveying employment opportunities for secondary school teachers in the years ahead, three factors need to be considered: trends in secondary school enrollments; supply of teachers in relation to demand;

TABLE 1

Number of Public Secondary School Teachers, Supervisors, and Principals Employed in the Various States, 1945–1946

STATE	TEACHERS	SUPERVISORS*	PRINCIPALS*	TOTAL
Alabama	7,135	10	346	7,491
Arizona	1,167		1	1,168
Arkansas	3,919	16	123	4,058
California	15,890			15,890
Colorado	3,026		114	3,140
Connecticut	3,840	69	113	4,022
Delaware	761	3	23	787
Florida	5,613			5,613
Georgia	6,683			6,683
Idaho	1,401	50	43	1,494
Illinois	13,730	240	630	14,600
Indiana	9,522		843	10,365
Iowa	6,442	212	551	7,205
Kansas	5,178		1,052	6,230
Kentucky	4,735	38	376	5,149
Louisiana	3,716			3,716
Maine	1,644		187	1,831
Maryland	3,730	38	146	3,914
Massachusetts	10,425			10,425
Michigan	12,791	9	728	13,528
Minnesota	7,190	40	219	7,449
Mississippi	3,998			3,998
Missouri	5,612			5,612
Montana	1,333	100	179	1,612
Nebraska	3,219	39	100	3,358
Nevada	280	13	11	304
New Hampshire	987	11	16	1,014
New Jersey	9,604		270	9,874
New Mexico	958			958
New York	29,542			29,542
North Carolina	5,183		917	6,100
North Dakota	1,542			1,542
Ohio	17,784	43	700	18,527

TABLE 1—*Continued*

STATE	TEACHERS	SUPERVISORS*	PRINCIPALS*	TOTAL
Oklahoma	4,926	37	627	5,590
Oregon	2,565			2,565
Pennsylvania	22,586		883	23,469
Rhode Island	1,877	30	66	1,973
South Carolina	3,894		131	4,025
South Dakota	1,437			1,437
Tennessee	5,060	18	379	5,457
Texas	12,172	52	802	13,026
Utah	2,053	18	110	2,181
Vermont	587	4	87	678
Virginia	5,485			5,485
Washington	4,719		243	4,962
West Virginia	5,094			5,094
Wisconsin	6,127		200	6,327
Wyoming	730	15	31	776
District of Columbia	1,606	27	73	1,706
	289,498	1,132	11,320	301,950

* Some states do not report the number of supervisors and principals by school level.

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems*, 1945–1946 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1949).

TABLE 2

Number of Teachers, Supervisors, and Principals Employed in Public Secondary Schools, 1899–1946

YEAR	TEACHERS			PRINCIPALS*	SUPERVISORS*	GRAND TOTAL
	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL			
1945–1946	103,293	186,205	289,498	11,320	1,132	301,950
1943–1944	94,782	194,272	289,054	13,563	1,224	303,841
1941–1942	123,627	176,433	300,060	14,049†	1,453†	315,562
1939–1940	126,837	173,440	300,277	13,239†	1,257†	314,773
1937–1938	115,662	165,579	281,241	15,127	1,424	297,792
1935–1936	109,191	158,393	267,584	12,690	1,532	281,806
1933–1934	87,703	140,024	227,727	12,190	1,247	241,164
1931–1932	80,768	150,385	231,153	10,573	1,314	243,040
1929–1930	74,532	138,774	213,153	11,385	2,238	226,929
1919–1920	32,386	69,572	101,958	4,063	905	106,926
1909–1910	18,890	22,777	41,667	— ‡	— ‡	41,667
1899–1900	10,172	10,200	20,372	— ‡	— ‡	20,372

* Some states do not report supervisors and principals by school levels; therefore the true number is slightly larger than these figures.

† Estimated.

‡ Not reported separately.

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems*, for the years indicated in the table (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office).

and services and programs to be provided. Of course no definitive forecast can be given, but some general observations may be made.

Effect of trends in secondary school enrollments. As will be pointed out in Chapter X, enrollments in secondary schools have declined slightly since 1941. This decrease was due primarily to the fact that many young persons left high school because of excellent job opportunities during the war and because of service in the armed forces. It was due also to the fact that birth rates were lower during the 1930's; the decrease was reflected in smaller high school enrollment in the 1940's.

These conditions are now being reversed. Job opportunities for youth are tapering off and will probably decline more sharply in the immediate years ahead; hence a larger proportion of students will be likely to remain in school. The most significant influence on secondary school enrollment in the years ahead, however, will be the greatly increased number of young people reaching high school age. Birth rates increased rapidly during the period of World War II and continued to increase in the years following the war. In 1932, for example, a total of 2,074,000 children were born in the United States; in 1940, the total was 2,360,000; but in 1947, the number had increased to about 3,600,000. In 1948, the number dropped to about 3,200,000, which still exceeds the birth rate of the 1930's by about a 1,000,000 children annually. This new wave of youngsters should be seeking admission to the junior high grades of the secondary schools of the country shortly after 1950 and in increasingly greater numbers thereafter for a foreseeable ten or fifteen years. The Bureau of the Census summarizes the situation in these words:

> . . . . Youngsters who are eleven and two-thirds to twelve and two-thirds years old (the common age for entering the seventh grade, or the first year of junior high school) will be increasingly numerous in each autumn from 1948 until 1955, and will exceed the previous record in 1958 or thereabouts. For this age group the gain from 1946 to 1958 will be nearly 1,100,000 or over 50 percent! . . . Because of past fluctuations in births, the number of boys and girls of the common age for entering the tenth grade, or the first year of senior high school (14 2/3 to 15 2/3), decreased from about 2,530,000 in September, 1940, to about 2,240,000 in 1946, and will continue downward to about 2,090,000 in 1948. During the 13 years thereafter, however, the trend will be reversed, so that in September, 1961, there will be nearly 3,270,000 in the group if death rates decline somewhat, as is expected. This represents an increase of almost 1,200,000, or over 55 per cent. If in addition to this increase in population there is a continuation of the past upward trend in the proportion of youngsters entering senior high school, faculty and facilities will need to be expanded on a still larger scale.[1]

So even disregarding other factors, it is evident that secondary

[1] U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Forecasts of the Population of the United States,* 1945–1975 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 56.

school enrollments will reach new peaks in the years following 1955. Thus many more secondary school teaching positions will exist in the years ahead. Using the Bureau of Census estimates, we see that by 1960 there will be about 3,000,000 more youngsters of junior high school age and 3,600,000 more of senior high school age than there were in the 1946 to 1948 period. If we apply a school enrollment rate of 90 per cent of the junior high school age group and 60 per cent of the senior high school group—certainly conservative figures in terms of present enrollment rates —we have 4,860,000 more boys and girls enrolled in secondary schools in 1960 than we had in 1946, and this is owing to the factor of increased births alone. If we use a ratio of 25 secondary pupils for each teacher employed—a high rate in terms of 1949 practices—we see that this anticipated increase in enrollments due to births calls for an additional 190,000 secondary school teachers over the approximately 300,000 employed in 1946. In addition, there will need to be more principals, supervisory staff members, and similar employees. Certainly secondary teaching is an expanding profession, and opportunities for employment will be greatly increased.

Supply of teachers in relation to demand. It is estimated that even before World War II, 50,000 teachers left the profession every year. If the same rate of turnover applies to both elementary and secondary school teachers, approximately 16,000 new secondary school teachers were needed each year, since about one third of all teachers are employed in these schools. World War II, however, precipitated a crisis in teacher turnover as well as in supply. It is estimated that from 350,000 to 500,000 teachers left the profession between the years 1939–1940 and 1945–1946. Moreover, an unduly large proportion of these were secondary teachers, particularly men. They left for a variety of reasons, but chiefly to accept higher-paying jobs in industry or government service, or to join the armed forces. A large percentage of these teachers did not return to teaching with the cessation of hostilities. To add to the problem, fewer young men and women attended college during the war years, and even fewer in proportion prepared to be teachers. The low prevailing salaries during the war period deterred many students in college from choosing teaching as a career. The result of these conditions is obvious: a serious shortage of teachers existed in the years immediately following 1942.

The National Education Association estimated that 13,000 actual vacancies existed in the classrooms of the nation in 1945–1946 and that a total of 60,000 teaching positions had been eliminated—positions that schools had eliminated largely because of their inability to secure teachers. This represents a total of about 73,000 unfilled teaching positions.[2] To fill the gaps left by those who dropped out of the profession or were tempo-

[2] Frank W. Hubbard, "The Continuing Crises in Education: 1946–1947," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 144, **31**:16–24 (February), 1947.

rarily in war service, about 113,000 persons who were employed in 1945–1946 were not fully qualified to secure even a regular state license, and an emergency or temporary certificate of some type had to be issued to them to permit them to teach.

Unquestionably, secondary schools were more severely affected by the teacher shortage than were the elementary schools, because a large proportion of the men teach in high school and also because many of the specialists, both men and women, in high school areas were able to obtain high-paying jobs in industry. However, by applying the same ratio of one to three,—the proportion of secondary teachers to the total, we see that in 1946 the secondary schools could absorb immediately about 78,000 fully qualified teachers: 16,000 teachers for normal replacements due to retirements, resignations, and the like; 24,000 to fill vacancies and vacated positions; and 38,000 to replace emergency teachers. This shortage of qualified secondary school teachers persisted through 1946–1947 and 1947–1948, although to a somewhat lessening degree.

What are the prospects ahead? Ray C. Maul made a significant study for the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association of teacher supply and demand in the United States for the year 1948. On the basis of a nation-wide survey of teacher-education institutions, he found that the number of college and university students who completed requirements for a standard secondary school certificate totaled 32,000 in 1941; in 1945, the number decreased to 17,000; but by 1948, 34,000 students fulfilled certification requirements. Thus, by 1948, the country had at least as large a supply of new teachers as it had in 1941.

Maul also attempted to obtain evidence as to the demand for new teachers. He secured only hastily assembled information from five states and rather complete information from one state. His data showed that in 1947–1948, the six states needed 5,177 new secondary teachers, but the teacher-education institutions in the spring of 1947 graduated only 3,639 teachers who were qualified for secondary positions. Using this sampling as a basis, Maul concluded that the supply of high school teachers is rapidly approaching a balance with the demand. It should be observed, however, that Maul's definition of demand does not take into account the needs of the high schools for replacement of poorly qualified or substandard teachers.

One of his most important conclusions concerned the maldistribution of the supply of new teachers among the various high school teaching fields. In some fields, serious shortages existed, whereas in others there was already an oversupply of trained teachers. His study shows the need on the part of teacher-education institutions for wise counseling of students interested in selecting teaching as a career.[3]

[3] Ray C. Maul, *Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948).

In terms of the balancing of supply and demand, two conditions may operate to decrease the number of new secondary teachers normally needed in the years ahead. Some of the men and women who left the profession for war service or other jobs during World War II may decide to return to teaching. It is difficult to adjudge this possibility properly. Probably most of those who will return to teaching will do so by 1950, although this is just a guess. Another fact that is lowering the long-term need for new teachers for existing positions is improvement in the tenure of teachers. The normal trend, upset of course, during the war period, is toward longer average tenure for teachers. If gains won during the 1940's in the relative status of teachers are retained in future years, undoubtedly the rate of turnover will continue to decline.

Effect of services and program to be provided. A major factor in determining the demand for secondary school teachers is the services and program to be offered by the secondary schools. Educators generally agree that a broader and more extensive program of secondary education is not only desirable but necessary if the secondary schools are to fulfill their functions properly. New personnel will be needed. In the years ahead, developments that may increase the demand for more trained personnel in the secondary schools are

1. Extension of secondary education to include grades thirteen and fourteen. This movement is growing rapidly throughout the nation and will be a major development during the next two decades, either under local school auspices or those of the state governments.

2. Decrease in class size. Most educators agree that the quality of the educational program would be improved by a reduction in the size of classes in the larger secondary schools. If the public is willing to support such efforts, a greater number of teachers will be needed.

3. Expansion of services and program. Chapter XX considers the services of the secondary school. Among examples of desirable expansion in secondary school services and program are guidance and counseling, health education and recreation, safety education, vocational education, core and general education programs, camping and summer activities, use of audiovisual instructional materials, and library service. All of these services require additions to the school personnel.

In conclusion, it appears that secondary schools will absorb in the immediate years ahead most, if not all, of the able, well-qualified persons who are justified in preparing for a career in teaching. Alert staffs of teacher-education institutions, however, will need to study supply and demand figures and be in a position to guide wisely those who may be interested in teaching. It takes four or five years of college work to prepare a teacher. At the end of this period of study those qualified should be reasonably sure of securing a suitable position. Proper guidance is the responsibility of the institution, and elimination of those who do not

possess to a high degree the personal qualifications necessary for success in the profession is justifiable.

Types of Positions Available in Secondary Education

Those planning a career in secondary education should be informed about the kinds of positions available in American education to those trained in the field. First, though, it must be recognized that opportunities for a career in any of the types of positions listed below grow largely out of success as a teacher of boys and girls. Anyone interested in the specialized or administrative and staff types of positions must first prove himself to be a genuine leader of adolescents and demonstrate his ability to guide their learning experiences with marked success and satisfaction. The following list makes no attempt to rank positions according to relative importance or to be inclusive of all titles. Prospective applicants of course should realize that the number of persons occupying positions in many of the specialties listed is limited.

Teacher of a subject or a core class, or director of an activity
Chairman of a department
Supervisor or coordinator for a subject area, a core program, or an activity
Counselor
Director of guidance
Director of audiovisual aids bureau
Librarian
Class counselor
Director of extraclassroom activities
Dean of girls
Dean of boys
Assistant principal
Principal
Director of secondary education
Director of curriculum and instruction
Assistant or associate superintendent in charge of secondary schools
Member of division of secondary education of state departments of education
College instructors in secondary education
Specialists in secondary education on staffs of publishing houses, with manufacturers of instructional materials, and with similar agencies

Selection and Appointment of Teachers

After a person has qualified for teaching and holds a valid certificate, the important thing, of course, is to secure a satisfactory position. Before he secures the kind of position he wants and for which he is qualified he must find whether there is a vacancy; then he must secure an

application and apply for the position; after this he must be appointed by the employing agency.

HOW TO LOCATE VACANCIES

Teachers may locate openings through their own efforts or through the services of placement bureaus. Teachers may properly direct brief letters of inquiry to superintendents of school systems in which they may wish to work about possible vacancies and requirements for appointment to positions. The person ordinarily should not submit an application for a position unless invited to do so by the superintendent or his personnel officer in response to such an inquiry about vacancies. Usually school systems will provide application forms if they wish to consider the applicant for a position. However, the letter of inquiry may well contain a brief statement concerning the amount of college training, the field of specialization, and experience, so that the administrator may know before inviting application, whether the person meets the minimum requirements for appointment.

Teacher-placement bureaus are usually operated by teacher-education institutions; in addition, some state departments of education and some state teachers' professional organizations maintain at least a clearing house of information about vacancies. Commercially operated placement bureaus also exist to bring candidate and employer together. College bureaus commonly restrict registrants to students or former students in their respective institution. College and state placement bureaus do not charge for their services, except when a nominal charge is made to cover operating costs. Commercial bureaus charge a commission. Registrants in college and commercial bureaus are notified by the bureau of vacancies for which the bureau official believes the teacher is well qualified.

APPLYING FOR A POSITION

If application forms are furnished by a school system in response to inquiry, they of course should be completely filled in and returned. In addition, the candidate may submit by letter such pertinent additional information as may help the employer better to evaluate his qualifications for the position.

Placement bureaus prepare sets of credentials for each registrant, and a copy is sent to the proper official when the teacher notifies the bureau that he is interested in applying for a particular position for which the bureau is willing to recommend him. The applicant should also write a letter, directly to the employing officer, indicating interest in the position, and he should supply whatever additional information seems desirable.

A personal interview with the employing officer is desirable, and some school systems require it. However, the interview should be ar-

ranged only on invitation of the employer. In some school systems, the candidate appears before a selection committee, often composed in part of teachers already employed in the system. Also, in certain school systems the board of education or a committee of the board insists on interviewing the applicant.

A number of school systems, particularly larger ones, give qualifying examinations to applicants. Such examinations may test intellectual ability, knowledge of subject matter, professional knowledge, and general cultural understanding.

In applying for a position, a candidate should not submit general letters of recommendation, nor should he ask persons to send letters of recommendation direct to the employer unless the employer so requests. Employers much prefer to secure their own statements about the applicant's qualifications.

Applying for and securing a position is a necessary but delicate matter. In the desire to secure a particular position it is easy for the unscrupulous teacher to stoop to highly unethical practices, such as undermining competitors for the job, underbidding in salary, overstating qualifications, using political pressure or pressure of influential people, and the like. Fortunately, good school administrators refuse to be swayed by such practices, and they usually select the applicant who in their judgment is best qualified for the position.

APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS

In most school systems the superintendent of schools recommends teachers to the board of education for election to the staff. By law, teachers must be formally elected by the board of education, or, as is the procedure in a few states, the superintendent under specific authorization of the board may make a contract with the teacher.[4]

In some of the larger cities, an eligibility list is maintained, and nominations to positions are made from this list. Teachers are placed on the list through the selective procedures discussed earlier. In other school systems the procedure is for the superintendent to nominate a person whom he has selected from among those who applied for a position in the system.

Methods of contracting with teachers will be discussed under tenure provisions later in this chapter.

Salaries of Secondary School Teachers

It is risky to present figures on salaries of secondary school teachers; first, because of the absence of complete data; secondly, because

[4] National Education Association, Research Division, *The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher* (Research Bulletin, Vol. 25, No. 2; Washington, D. C.: The Association, April, 1947), p. 33.

salaries of teachers vary from year to year, depending on general economic conditions, supply and demand, and provisions of salary schedules; and thirdly, because average or medium salaries do not reflect fairly the salaries of individual teachers, particularly new appointees. With these cautions in mind, Tables 3 and 4 are presented in an effort to show salary levels and trends.

TABLE 3

Average Annual Salary of Supervisors, Principals, and Teachers in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1929–1930, 1939–1940, 1945–1946

STATE	SALARY		
	1929–1930	1939–1940	1945–1946
Continental United States	$1,420	$1,441	$1,995
Alabama	792	744	1,276
Arizona	1,637	1,544	2,167
Arkansas	673	584	1,068
California	2,123	2,351	2,987
Colorado	1,453	1,393	1,822
Connecticut	1,812	1,861	2,393
Delaware	1,570	1,684	2,202
Florida	876	1,012	1,719
Georgia	684	770	1,081
Idaho	1,200	1,057	1,672
Illinois	1,630	1,700	2,280
Indiana	1,466	1,433	2,143
Iowa	1,094	1,017	1,676
Kansas	1,159	1,014	1,666
Kentucky	896	826	1,295
Louisiana	941	1,006	1,537
Maine	942	894	1,409
Maryland	1,518	1,642	2,262
Massachusetts	1,875	2,037	2,512
Michigan	1,534	1,576	2,337
Minnesota	1,251	1,276	1,878
Mississippi	620	559	856
Missouri	1,235	1,159	1,793
Montana	1,215	1,184	1,838
Nebraska	1,077	829	1,514
Nevada	1,483	1,557	1,992
New Hampshire	1,254	1,258	1,530
New Jersey	2,113	2,093	2,561
New Mexico	1,113	1,144	1,970
New York	2,493	2,604	2,946
North Carolina	873	946	1,602
North Dakota	900	745	1,469
Ohio	1,665	1,587	2,165

TABLE 3—*Continued*

STATE	SALARY		
	1929–1930	1939–1940	1945–1946
Oklahoma	$1,072	$1,014	$1,796
Oregon	1,612	1,333	2,164
Pennsylvania	1,620	1,640	2,124
Rhode Island	1,437	1,809	2,098
South Carolina	788	743	1,152
South Dakota	956	807	1,530
Tennessee	902	862	1,287
Texas	924	1,079	1,640
Utah	1,330	1,394	2,016
Vermont	963	981	1,692
Virginia	861	899	1,574
Washington	1,556	1,706	2,547
West Virginia	1,023	1,170	1,676
Wisconsin	1,399	1,379	2,002
Wyoming	1,239	1,169	1,654
District of Columbia	2,269	2,350	2,637

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems*, for the years indicated (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office).

AVERAGE SALARY OF ALL TEACHERS

No state-by-state figures on salaries of secondary school teachers are available, since salary data are not reported separately by school levels. The biennial surveys of education made by the United States Office of Education, however, report the average salary of all teachers, supervisors, and principals in both elementary and secondary schools. These figures are given in Table 3 for each state for the years 1929–1930, 1939–1940, and 1945–1946.

It is unfortunate that later figures from the United States Office of Education are not available so that the rapid rise in salaries that occurred after 1946 can be shown. The reader may make such comparisons, however, as later issues of the *Statistics of State School Systems* are issued. The table shows the wide variation that exists among the states in teachers' salaries. For example, in 1945–1946, teachers in Mississippi were paid an average salary of $856, while those in New York received an average salary of $2,946—more than three times as much. The figures given here show that the average teacher's salary in 1939–1940 was just about at the same level as that for 1929–1930. Detailed tables for the intervening years would have shown a sharp drop in salaries during the depths of the depression in the 1930's. From the years 1939–1940 to 1945–1946, salaries on the average increased substantially—40 per cent for the nation as a whole—but the increase did not equal the increase in costs of living during the same period, nor were salaries still at high enough levels in terms of the professional qualifications needed for success as a teacher.

MEDIAN SALARY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The National Education Association also makes a biennial survey of teachers' salaries. Its information is based on data received from a sampling of the city school systems of the nation. Only cities with a population of 2,500 or over are included in the survey. This survey however, does report salaries by type of position, and the data are grouped according to the size of the city. Pertinent data from these surveys are given in Table 4. It shows the median salary for junior high school and

TABLE 4

Median Salaries of Junior High School and High School Teachers and Principals, Cities of 2,500 Population or More, 1930–1931, 1940–1941, 1946–1947

SIZE OF CITY AND TYPE OF POSITION	1930–1931	1940–1941	1946–1947
Cities of over 100,000 Population			
Junior High School Teachers	$2,348	$2,471	$3,075
High School Teachers	2,731	2,768	3,593
Junior High School Principals	4,500	4,403	4,953
High School Principals	5,100	4,806	5,741
Cities of from 30,000 to 100,000 Population			
Junior High School Teachers	1,860	1,847	2,546
High School Teachers	2,111	2,039	2,774
Junior High School Principals	3,353	3,175	4,016
High School Principals	4,281	4,000	4,700
Cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 Population			
Junior High School Teachers	1,619	1,597	2,354
High School Teachers	1,876	1,803	2,595
Junior High School Principals	2,763	2,598	3,425
High School Principals	3,613	3,303	4,071
Cities of from 5,000 to 10,000 Population			
Junior High School Teachers	1,494	1,452	2,155
High School Teachers	1,692	1,626	2,375
Junior High School Principals	2,184	1,992	2,965
High School Principals	2,825	2,596	3,496
Cities of from 2,500 to 5,000 Population			
Junior High School Teachers	1,360	1,301	2,087
High School Teachers	1,547	1,428	2,274
Junior High School Principals	1,775	1,596	2,625
High School Principals	2,403	2,136	3,197

SOURCE: National Education Association, Research Division, *Salaries of City-School Employees, 1946–47* (Research Bulletin, Vol. 25, No. 1; Washington, D. C.: The Association, February, 1947).

high school classroom teachers and principals for 1930–1931, 1940–1941, and 1946–1947 in cities of various sizes. The median salary is the mid-salary when all salaries are ranked from lowest to highest. Fifty per cent of the salaries would be higher than the median salary, and 50 per cent of the salaries would be lower. In most cases, it would approximate the average salary.

This table shows again that salaries in 1940 were at approximately the same levels as those in 1930. An increase in the general salary level, how-

ever, has occurred since 1940. The percentage increases in median salaries from 1940–1941 to 1946–1947 varied from about 12 per cent for junior high school principals in cities of more than 100,000 population to 64 per cent for junior high school principals in cities of from 2,500 to 5,000 population. The average increase from 1940 to 1946 in median salaries of classroom teachers was 39 per cent, and of principals, 27 per cent. Median salaries are progressively larger as the size of the city increases.

Undoubtedly, teachers' salaries in the years prior to World War II were too low in terms of the professional preparation required and the responsibilities attaching to the position. This low salary level was largely the reason for thousands of teachers' leaving the profession during the war years, and the decline in teachers in turn precipitated a crisis in public education. The public finally realized what the effects of continued low salaries had been in terms of the building of a teaching profession, and beginning in 1946 they supported plans for raising teachers' salaries substantially. New minimum salary laws were passed in a number of states, and new salary schedules were adopted in most school systems. The outlook has been much more favorable in recent years, but the American people must come to understand that if they want an able staff of secondary school teachers for their schools, they must be willing to compensate them adequately.

MINIMUM SALARY REGULATIONS

To assure teachers that they will receive at least a specified minimum salary on accepting a position in the state, a number of the states have adopted laws, or state boards of education have issued regulations, which prescribe minimum salaries for teachers. These laws or regulations are to protect teachers against unscrupulous boards of education that might wish to take advantage of them in times of a surplus of teachers and to pay salaries that the state considers to be too low for a person with professional qualifications.

The first minimum salary law for teachers was passed by West Virginia in 1882. Since then, twenty-five states have set minimum salary standards by law, and in seven additional states the state board of education has established a minimum salary scale that the schools of the state must follow, or in some cases to which they must adhere if they want to receive state aid. [5]

States that had guaranteed a minimum annual salary to teachers in 1948 and certain features of the plans are listed in Table 5. In 1946, California adopted an amendment to the state constitution, setting a minimum annual salary of $2,400 for teachers. In the other states,

[5] National Education Association, *State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers, 1944; Supplement, 1946;* and *Results to Date of 1947 State Legislation on Minimum Salaries of Teachers* (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1944, 1946, and 1947).

TABLE 5

States with Minimum Annual Teacher's Salary Guaranteed by Law or by the State Board of Education and Amount Guaranteed New Teachers without Experience Who Hold a Bachelor's Degree, 1948

STATE	AUTHORITY	DISTRICTS COVERED	MINIMUM SALARY FOR NEW TEACHERS WITH DEGREE
Alabama	State Board	State Aided	$2,100*
Arkansas	State Board	State Aided	1,680
California	Constitution	All	2,400
Colorado	Statute	All	675
Delaware	State Board	State Unit	2,000
Florida	Statute	All	2,550†
Georgia	State Board	All	1,524
Idaho	Statute	All	1,600
Illinois	Statute	All	2,200
Indiana	Statute	All	2,400
Iowa	Statute	All	810
Kentucky	Statute	All	600
Louisiana	Statute	All	2,400
Maine	Statute	All	1,700
Maryland	Statute	All except Baltimore	2,200
Massachusetts	Statute	All	1,000
Nevada	Statute	State Aided	2,400
New Hampshire	State Board	State Aided	1,800
New Jersey	Statute	All	1,800
New York	Statute	All	2,000
North Carolina	State Board	All	1,620
North Dakota	Statute	All	1,350
Oklahoma	Statute	All	1,500
Oregon	Statute	All	2,100
Pennsylvania	Statute	All	2,000
Rhode Island	Statute	All	1,200‡
South Carolina	Statute	All	954
Tennessee	State Board	State Aided	1,530
Texas	Statute	State Aided	2,007
Vermont	Statute	All	1,800
Washington	Statute	All	2,400
West Virginia	Statute	All	1,800
Wisconsin	Statute	Elementary only	1,200

* Alabama does not have a state minimum salary, but it does have a salary scale on the basis of which it allocates state-aid funds.

† In allocation of state funds for support of the minimum program, Florida allows an average of $2,550 for teachers with degrees. No state salary schedule as such is enforced, but the money allocated cannot be used by the local districts for any other purpose.

‡ Plus a $600 state salary voted by the 1947 legislature.

SOURCE: National Education Association, *Supplement, 1946, to State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers, 1944*, and *Results to Date of 1947 State Legislation on Minimum Salaries of Teachers* (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1946, 1947).

statutory law provides the basis for the minimum salary, either specifying the amount itself or authorizing the state board of education to set the amount. In most of the states, the minimum applies to all districts; in some, however, the minimum legally applies only to districts that receive state aid, but since this includes a large proportion of the teachers it is in effect a state minimum salary.

The minimum salary set for teachers with a bachelor's degree varies greatly. A number of states adjusted their minimum salaries in 1947 to take account of the higher living costs that prevailed following the war, and also in an attempt to hold and attract well-qualified teachers. The low salaries listed, such as for Colorado and Iowa, represent minimums set some years previously; to be meaningful, they will have to be adjusted to the higher salary levels that prevail in other states.

Several of the states exercise control over minimum salaries by means of financial aid to schools from state revenues. In some cases, all or a specified portion of the funds provided for districts must be used for payment of salaries. In other instances, a minimum salary scale is specified, and state aid is based on this scale.

Just as the state may set a minimum salary or aid a district in maintaining a certain salary level, so the state may rather effectively control the general level of salaries prevailing in the state by means of laws regulating the financing of schools. By setting maximum limits for tax levies and similar restrictions over school revenues, the state controls at least the maximum amount of money that will be available to support a particular school and hence the salaries it is able to pay.

Whether a minimum salary for teachers should be established by legislation or whether society should guarantee teachers as a class a stipulated salary is a controversial matter. The arguments for and against the practice will not be presented in this introductory treatment. However, if a state minimum salary law is passed, it will best serve its purpose if it conforms to these conditions:

The law should be state-wide in application, with no exceptions permitted.

The law should not set a maximum of any kind, and conditions should be such that local districts are encouraged to exceed the minimum.

The law should provide a salary schedule, rather than a flat minimum, so that various levels of training and amounts of experience are recognized.

The prescribed minimums should be high enough to attract to and hold in the profession competent teachers.

State aid should be granted to districts unable to meet the salary costs established by the state schedule.

SCHEDULING SALARIES

In most of the better administered school systems, boards of education usually establish a definite salary schedule that determines the

beginning salary of a teacher and the amount and number of annual increments in terms of preparation, experience, and similar stated factors; but in a number of systems, particularly the smaller, salary is determined by individual bargaining and raises are on a catch-as-catch-can basis. There is little doubt that a definite salary schedule makes for better teacher morale, better security, and increased effectiveness of the staff.

In adopting a sound salary schedule, a number of issues must be decided. The more important of these issues are

1. How much should teachers be paid? This is a complex problem and requires extraordinarily sound judgment if the long-term interests of boys and girls are to be respected. It involves an analysis of the life income of persons in other professions requiring comparable qualifications and preparation, of the supply and demand of teachers, of salaries paid in comparable school systems, of costs of living, of the purchasing power of the dollar, and of the relative value to society of teaching.

2. Should the schedule provide the same salary for all school levels? Traditionally, teachers in secondary schools have received higher salaries than teachers in elementary schools, but the trend in the past two decades has been toward a single salary scale for all teachers with the same qualifications in the system. A single schedule makes for greater unity among the members of the staff, facilitates assignment, stabilizes the teaching force, and strengthens the elementary school program.

3. What recognition should be given preparation? Most salary schedules establish different minimum and maximum salaries for various levels of preparation. These levels are usually stated in terms of the amount of college work completed. Such a practice recognizes the value of professional preparation and, by establishing higher salary brackets for the better prepared teacher, encourages more study on the part of teachers, either prior to employment or during service.

4. What increments should be provided? A salary schedule should provide a systematic plan of increments by which a teacher may advance from the minimum to the maximum salary. Usually, annual increments are provided until the maximum is attained. This is a recognition of the greater efficiency that comes with experience, and it aids in reducing turnover. In good schedules the maximum salary is usually about twice the minimum salary and is attained through from ten to twenty annual increases.

5. Should increments be automatic or conditional? Some salary schedules have provided that advancement up the scale be dependent on a satisfactory merit rating. This has been a highly controversial matter, and the present trend is to discard such merit rating advancements and make all increments automatic. It is also a practice according to some plans before granting increments, to require evidence of professional growth through study or other activities over a period of every three to five years.

6. Should recognition be given to family status? In years past, men were paid higher salaries than women, even when they were holding comparable assignments. In recent years, however, laws in ten states and board-of-education regulations in many systems have established equal-pay provisions for men and women. At present, few salary schedules distinguish between sexes. However, a provision being adopted by some systems recognizes family dependency and grants an additional allowance for dependents who are supported by the teacher, either man or woman.

Such issues underlying salary-schedule preparation are often referred by the administrator to teachers for consideration and for recommendations. Thus teachers in general should have some understanding of the principles of salary scheduling and should be willing to face the issues realistically and fairly. Regardless of the wishes of members of boards of education to pay adequate salaries to teachers, they cannot do so if adequate funds are not available. One of the biggest responsibilities of teachers as a group, therefore, is to convince the public of the desirability of making available enough funds to enable boards of education to pay the salaries justified by the professional demands made on teachers.

Provisions for Teacher Tenure

This section begins a consideration of provisions that have been made for the security and welfare of teachers. These provisions have been adopted by states and boards of education in simple justice to a highly important group of public employees but also in order that employment conditions in teaching may compare favorably with those existing in many other professions and occupations. Such measures serve to attract and hold able people in the profession, and aid in developing good morale, security, and stability among the teaching corps. Thus they represent important efforts to improve the quality of our educational program.

LEGISLATION GOVERNING TENURE OF TEACHERS

One of the most troublesome problems of school administration is to provide security of position for competent teachers without curtailing unduly the right to dismiss the incompetent. The major problem arises in trying to determine in borderline cases which teacher is good enough to retain and which is such a detriment to the school that his services should be discontinued. When factors other than actual efficiency as a teacher are considered as a basis for dismissal, obviously the best interests of the boys and girls and of the school itself are not being safeguarded.

In years past boards of education have dismissed teachers or refused to renew their contracts for petty reasons not directly related to teaching efficiency. In these instances, moreover, teachers have had no recourse—even no opportunity to be heard in their own defense—and too frequently

were not even notified of the reasons for dismissal. Of course great numbers of boards of education in this country have established long and outstanding records of fair and ethical employment practices, but the unsavory dismissals are numerous enough to cause serious-minded parents and teachers to be concerned.

For years both teacher and lay groups have made efforts to improve the tenure status of teachers. Usually such movements seek legislative action—either adoption of state laws or of local board regulations—to protect teachers. The primary purpose of such legislation is to prevent teachers from being dismissed from employment by the board of education except for proven professional incompetency or serious personal offenses against society or the school system. The first such state law was passed by New Jersey in 1909, but enactment of state-wide tenure laws since that time has not been widespread. However, a number of states have enacted tenure laws covering a portion of the teachers of the state, usually those in larger cities.

The status of tenure legislation in 1948 is shown in Table 6. In only ten states were all teachers protected by permanent tenure or the protective type of continuing contract laws; in seventeen other states some teachers, usually those in the larger systems, have permanent tenure. The National Education Association estimates that about 45 per cent of the public school teachers of the nation are covered by permanent tenure laws.

PERMANENT TENURE LAWS

Under laws giving teachers permanent tenure a probationary period of from two to five years is required before the teacher attains permanent status. Usually it is three years. Reappointment at the end of the probationary period automatically places the teacher under the provisions of the permanent-tenure law. One difficulty that has arisen in actual practice with this type of law is the tendency for some boards of education to dismiss teachers freely during or at the end of the probationary period in order to prevent them from attaining permanent tenure.

Teachers who are on permanent tenure are protected by the tenure laws from unjustified dismissal, suspension, and reduction to a lower level on the salary schedule, and in some instances from demotion. If any action of this sort is contemplated by the board of education the law provides that a notice of intention be given, a statement of charges filed, and the teacher given an opportunity for a hearing before the board. In a number of these states an appeal of an adverse decision to proper higher authorities may be made by teachers. Laws differ greatly in their provisions relative to the grounds on which a board may dismiss a teacher, but conditions under which dismissal is legal usually include incompetency, immorality, insubordination, and conduct of a type unbecoming a teacher.

TABLE 6

Legal Provisions for Tenure of Teachers in the Various States, 1948

TYPES OF PROVISIONS	NUMBER	STATES
I. All teachers covered by some type of indefinite tenure law		
a. Permanent tenure or the protective type of continuing contract after probationary period	10	Alabama, Florida,* Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New Mexico, Pennsylvania
b. Continuing contract unless majority action taken for dismissal by specified date	9	Arkansas, Delaware, West Virginia, Montana, Nevada, North Carolina, North Dakota, Tennessee, Washington
c. Permanent tenure in some districts after probationary period; continuing contracts in other districts	8	Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Missouri, Oregon, South Carolina, Wisconsin
II. Some teachers covered by indefinite tenure laws		
a. Permanent tenure in larger districts; special optional provisions for smaller districts	3	California, Kentucky, Ohio
b. Permanent tenure optional; local voters permitted to adopt it	1	Michigan
c. Permanent tenure in certain districts; no provisions or annual elections in others	4	Colorado, Georgia, New York, Kansas
d. Permanent tenure in largest districts; continuing contract in other town systems; annual elections in rural districts	1	Nebraska
III. No teachers covered by indefinite tenure laws		
a. Contracts for more than one year permitted in all or some districts	3	Maine, Mississippi, Texa
b. Annual elections	2	Arizona, Oklahoma
c. No legislation	7	Idaho, New Hampshire, Vermont, Virginia, Utah, Wyoming, South Dakota

* The general law in Florida will not be effective until 1951; five counties have permanent tenure under prior laws.

SOURCE: National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *Teacher Tenure; Analysis and Appraisal* and *High Spots in State School Legislation Enacted in 1948*, mimeographed (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1947 and 1949).

Although dismissal may be made under provisions of the law, experience shows that, because of the difficulty of complying with the conditions of the law, few teachers on permanent tenure actually are discharged by boards of education. Critics of permanent tenure contend that this condi-

tion breeds indifference and a lackadaisical attitude on the part of many teachers on permenent tenure; furthermore, that many teachers whose teaching competency becomes questionable are frozen in their jobs, with resulting detrimental effects on pupils. Thoughtful students of personnel practices, however, believe that in the long run permanent tenure laws result in a better educational program than do short-term employment conditions.

CONTINUING CONTRACTS

A number of states, listed in Table 6, have a provision whereby a contract between a teacher and a school district is automatically renewed unless the board notifies the teacher by a specified date that it is not to be renewed or replaces the old contract with a new contract. In most of these states the protection amounts to little more than a certainty that the teacher knows his contractual status by a specified date each year. Such provisions do compel boards to be definite in the contractual relations with teachers.

Extension of better tenure provisions for teachers will undoubtedly grow. The movement is consistent with civil service principles governing other public employees and with our expanding ideas of social justice. Experts are convinced that permanent tenure makes for better schools because it provides teachers greater security, protects them against unscrupulous action, and offers them a better basis for freedom of action.

Provisions for Retirement of Teachers

All forty-eight states now have retirement plans for teachers.[6] Provisions of the laws and the retirement allowances paid vary greatly from state to state, but all of them at least have some plan whereby teachers may be retired on the basis of age, years of service, or disability.

Plans for providing retirement allowances for teachers gained headway slowly in this country. Financially unsound mutual-aid societies were established by local teachers' groups in the early 1880's, but in 1896, New Jersey, the first state to adopt permanent tenure, became the first to adopt a state-wide teachers' pension system. Only twenty-one states had adopted retirement plans by 1930.

Tremendous impetus was given the retirement movement by the action of the federal government in 1933, when it adopted in one full sweep a comprehensive social security plan that included pension and retirement provisions for practically all the citizens of the nation, except public employees, farm and domestic workers, and self-employed persons.

[6] National Education Association, *Statutory Provisions for Statewide Retirement Systems* and *High Spots in State School Legislation Enacted in 1946* (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1946 and 1947).

The federal government had already established a retirement plan for its own civil service employees. With such an expansion in the number of persons covered by a social security plan of some sort, it was only natural that teachers should also demand some plan, since they were not included in the federal program.

The public readily saw the justice of the teachers' demands. When it became apparent that teachers would not soon be included in the federal social security program, the remaining states quickly adopted plans that covered teachers. Eight states enacted teacher retirement-laws in the single year of 1945.

Not only are teacher-retirement plans justified as a simple extension of the social security principle to an important class of public employees, but as a factor in providing better schools for the nation. In the first place, benefits accrue to the schools from the fact that the plans provide for removal from the classrooms of teachers who because of age or disability are less able to carry on the work of the school. With retirement definite, pupils do not become the victims of a social policy that fails to provide for the dignified exit from the profession of superannuated teachers. Secondly, a good retirement plan should tend to attract more capable people into the profession and hold them until retirement age. Thirdly, teachers have better security with attendant release from worry over a destitute old age. This security should make for better morale and mental health.

New Mexico and Rhode Island have outright pension plans for teachers; the other forty-six states have some type of joint-contributory plan by which the state or employing agency and the individual teacher share in providing the retirement fund. The state establishes the agency that administers the plan. Payments are made by the local district or by the state to cover the employer's share of the cost of the retirement allowance, either on a cash-disbursement or a reserve-fund basis. A set percentage or a flat amount is deducted from the teacher's salary and transmitted to the state agency to provide the teacher's part of the retirement allowance. Thus on retirement the teacher's allowance consists of a pension paid by the state from tax funds and an annuity earned by the teacher's individual deposits in the fund.

Future developments in teacher retirement largely revolve around the possibility of the extension of federal social security benefits to teachers. If teachers should be included in this program, will the individual states be willing to continue to carry the burden of their state plans? Teachers hope so, for most state plans are more generous than the federal benefits for retirement. The states, however, especially those that adopted plans in recent years as an alternative to federal social security, may abandon state programs or at least insist on some type of correlation with the federal program.

Leaves of Absence

It is humanly impossible for all teachers to be on the job every day school is in session; in addition, it is professionally expedient to permit teachers to be absent on occasion. Good personnel practices in schools provide for a systematic policy covering absences from duty.

Absence from duty may be granted for the following general reasons:

1. Personal: illness, injury, maternity, religious observances, and death or emergency conditions in the immediate family circle
2. Professional: participation in educational and professional meetings, visitation, study, travel, exchange teaching, participation in professional organizations
3. Civic: jury duty, voting, court summons, military duty, participation in community undertakings

In an extensive survey made in 1941, of practices in 1,736 cities, the National Education Association found that the chief circumstances under which teachers may be absent for brief periods without loss of pay are death in the immediate family, attendance at educational meetings, visits to other schools, and personal illness. In addition to brief absences without loss of pay, school systems grant absences on partial pay, or they may use a combination of the two procedures. Ninety-three per cent of the 1,736 systems included in the survey granted leave for illness with some pay.[7] The trend among school systems is rather slowly toward the extension of leaves of absence with some pay, and the recognition of a broader basis for granting leaves, both with pay and without pay.

Professional Organizations for Teachers

A teacher is a member of a large and important profession. As such, he naturally wants to associate with fellow educators, to share problems and experiences with them, and to join with his co-workers for improvement not only of the educational program itself but also of the status of the profession. To serve these and other purposes, many professional educational associations have been organized.

TYPES OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

At present, there are numerous professional educational associations functioning in the country. Any teacher could doubtless qualify for membership in a score or more of these organizations. The teacher, if he wishes to conserve his energies and money, will need to select those that best serve his purposes and interests, as well as hold the greatest promise for making a contribution to the cause of education.

[7] National Education Association, Research Division, *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service* (Research Bulletin, Vol. 20, No. 3; Washington, D. C.: The Association, May, 1942).

The important functions that professional organizations may serve are

To work for the improvement of education generally
To promote the welfare of teachers
To improve the professional knowledge and ability of teachers
To foster professional status and prestige
To aid in the formulation and clarification of objectives, points of view, and concepts guiding educational development
To make studies, carry forward projects, and conduct research that will benefit educational practice

The scope of the program and the activities of various associations differ widely. Some have a comprehensive program that contributes directly to a number of the aforementioned functions; others concentrate their activities on one or at most several of these functions.

For convenience, professional organizations may be classified into the following types:

1. General membership. Organizations that serve the interests of all educators, regardless of position or duties:
   a. National; for example, National Education Association, American Federation of Teachers
   b. State; for example, New York State Teachers Association
   c. Local; for example, Lincoln Teachers Association
2. Specialized membership. Organizations that promote the interests of specialized groups:
   a. School level; for example, Secondary Teachers, Adult Education, Association for Childhood Education
   b. Area of instruction; for example, National Council of Teachers of English, Speech Association of America
   c. Professional duties; for example, Department of Classroom Teachers, National Association of Secondary School Principals

Space cannot be taken here to consider in detail all of these voluntary associations, but the program of the two general national associations should be noted, and illustrations given of the work of the other types.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION (NEA)

The National Education Association is the oldest and by far the largest of our general organizations. It began as the National Teachers Association in the 1860's, but it grew slowly in the years following, enrolling only 2,300 active members in 1900 and about 10,000 in 1919. Nevertheless, it wielded great influence in educational circles, and the prominent educators of the nation were active in its conferences and on its committees. At about the turn of the century, pronouncements by some of its committees, such as the famous Committee of Fifteen, the Committee of Twelve, and the Committee on College Entrance Requirements,

were widely discussed and were influential in bringing about improvments in education.

Beginning in 1919, membership rose rapidly, gaining more than 100,000 members in four years. Another sensational rise in membership of 200,000 occurred between 1943 and 1949, so that in the latter year the total membership was 427,527. Although this is large, it represents only about 40 per cent of the educators of the nation.

With its rapid expansion in membership, the activities and program of the National Education Association have also expanded greatly, and it is safe to say that its influence and prestige have also kept pace. Associated with the National Education Association as a parent organization are twenty-four allied departments, or specialized professional organizations. These subsidiary or related groups carry forward their own programs of activities in an effort to serve a specialized group of educators. The association itself has established a number of commissions and committees to study educational problems. One of the most important of these is the Educational Policies Commission, created in 1935, which has since issued a number of important statements on the purposes and nature of a program of education needed in democratic America. In the late war and postwar years of the 1940's, the Association was active in bringing to the attention of the public the seriousness of the teacher shortage and attendant conditions, and a great deal of credit for improvement in the situation belongs to the Association.

The Association publishes a monthly magazine, *The NEA Journal*, and through its various divisions and committees it issues numerous research studies and reports.

Unquestionably, the Association is gaining in power and prestige, and leaders hope to make it as much the spokesman for American education as are the national organizations spokesmen for other strong professions.

THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS

The Federation was organized in 1916 and became an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor during the same year. Affiliation of teachers with labor unions has been a highly controversial issue in educational circles, and the Federation has traveled a rocky road in its drive for membership. A number of boards of education have refused teachers the right to retain their jobs if they join the federation. Latest figures indicate that its membership numbers about 42,000 teachers, which is almost double the membership in 1941. However, in 1939, the federation had a membership of 33,000.

Affiliation with organized labor is a loose arrangement, with the teachers' group remaining free to determine its own policies and program

without dictation from central labor councils or other labor groups. The Federation of Teachers refuses membership to anyone occupying an administrative or supervisory position; it is solely an organization of teachers. Many educators decry this policy, maintaining that it produces a schism among educators and not only sets one group against another but decreases professional effectiveness by encouraging disunity. The federation justifies its position on the grounds that administrators dominate other professional organizations and run them to serve their own interests and that teachers would be reluctant to voice grievances or join in constructive efforts to improve teacher welfare in the presence of their employers' agents.

The program of the federation and its locals centers largely on teacher and child welfare, with its chief efforts concentrated on securing approved legislative action at the local board level, and the state and national level. It publishes an official journal called *American Teacher.*

Parallel with the rapid expansion of the labor movement in the late 1930's and 1940's, the American Federation of Teachers has expanded rapidly and has gained increased prestige and power. Some of the violent opposition it faced earlier has died down, and in many cities it is one of the recognized and strong professional organizations. There are those who of course lament the division of our professional forces at the national level into two organizations, but unquestionably the federation has accomplished a great deal of good for education not only in its own right but in the salutary effect its program and actions have had on other professional organizations.

STATE AND LOCAL PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Every state has some kind of a general teachers' association that seeks to provide professional leadership for the educators of the state. Such organizations serve much the same purposes at the state level as the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers do at the national level. A large part of the activities of state organizations is directed at legislative action, and it is largely through their efforts that various welfare legislation for teachers and for better financial support and administrative structure for education has been passed. Many of the state organizations, however, also carry on research studies, issue pronouncements on educational program and policy, hold educational conferences, and generally work for the improvement of the schools of the state. Most of these associations issue an official monthly journal that goes to all members.

Similar to the state associations are local teachers' organizations, organized on a system-wide or other local basis. Often the local groups are subsidiaries of the state organization, and they work at the local level on

the general program of the state, as well as concern themselves with problems and issues confronting teachers locally. It is at the local level that the teachers' union is most effective, and it is often a vigorous spokesman on matters pertaining to teacher welfare before boards of education. In some of the larger systems, a number of local organizations may be functioning, sometimes with intense rivalry and friction.

SPECIALIZED PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

A great multiplicity of specialized professional organizations exist. Most of the groups function on a national scale, but there are also many similar state and even local groups. The large national organizations often maintain executive offices and a paid secretarial staff. Names of some of the more prominent specialized organizations are given in Chapter III.

The main function of these organizations is to bring together educators working in a specialized area of the total program of education for purposes of developing mutual understanding, exchanging information and points of view, and improving the understanding and professional skill of their members. Their efforts center primarily on seeking to bring about improvement of the educational program in the special areas encompassed within the scope of their activities. To further these purposes, many of the groups publish official magazines, issue yearbooks on subjects of interest to members, and hold frequent conferences. Much of our educational literature today appears under the imprint of these specialized organizations. Unquestionably, they play an important part in the improvement of American education and in aiding individual teachers to improve professionally. The chief criticism of such groups is that they represent vested interests and accentuate separateness of purpose, making it more difficult to build a unified school program designed to promote desirable growth of boys and girls as contrasted to acquisition of a body of specialized subject matter.

Ethics for Teachers

With over a million persons in the teaching profession who have a great heterogeneity of background and idealism, it is apparent that all will not have a common conception of what constitutes proper relationships with co-workers, administrative superiors, pupils, and members of the community at large. In an effort to give at least some type of guidance to teachers in their personal relationships with others, the organized profession has developed and adopted codes of ethics. These codes do not have the force of law, and therefore a teacher cannot be punished through legal procedures for violation of a code, as is true in some of the older professions, but they do define standards of conduct that have the approval of the great mass of teachers.

CODE OF ETHICS

The National Education Association adopted a code in 1929 and revised it in 1941. Most of the state associations and many local groups have developed their own codes or adopted the National Education Association code. Compliance with these codes is essentially voluntary, although six states and the National Education Association do have committees charged with definite responsibility for investigating and passing judgment on instances of alleged violation of their respective codes. No punitive action in law may be taken; expulsion from the sponsoring organization is as far as professional action may go. Public opinion, though, may also be aroused through committee action of this sort. For example, the National Education Association, on the recommendation of its Ethics Committee, expelled the superintendent of a large city school system from the Association in 1945. This action was probably a factor in the release of the man from his superintendency by the board of education.

Primarily, however, the purpose of a code of ethics is not punitive; rather it is to serve as a positive guide to proper professional conduct. It points the way for dealing with questionable situations and gives the teacher assurance that action in accordance with the code has the approval of his professional co-workers.

Secondary teachers should be familiar with the provisions of the Code of Ethics of the National Education Association. Copies may be secured from the Association.

TEACHERS' STRIKES

A highly controversial matter in the minds of both the public and the teachers is the exercise of the strike by teachers to secure favorable action on matters of concern to them. The first important use of the strike by teachers occurred during the school year 1946–1947 when walkouts of teachers took place. The issue at stake was principally higher salaries. With amazing ease, the striking teachers were able to win their demands in most of the strikes. Public approval was high, for most citizens realized that teachers' salaries had not risen comparably to the wages in other occupations or the cost of living. The ease with which the striking teachers won their cases encouraged greater militancy among many local groups, and it was feared that a number of strikes would result. Rapid adjustments of salaries and legislative action to assure better salaries forestalled most of these strikes, but teachers had discovered a new source of power.

Although they approved the demands of teachers for better wages, many educational spokesmen, usually with administrative backgrounds and already holding lucrative positions, deplored the strike as a weapon to be used by teachers. They felt that it greatly weakened the professional

position of the teacher, that it was against public policy, and that it was unethical to violate a contract. Officially, the National Education Association opposed teachers' strikes. The American Federation of Teachers officially does not favor strikes, but it has nonetheless sanctioned them. At the local level, a number of unions were active in waging these strikes, although in most instances the strike was system-wide with most if not all teachers joining, regardless of local professional membership.

Several states, for example, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Texas, retaliated to the strike movement by passing legislation that prohibits strikes among public employees, including teachers.

The use of the strike is simply one more evidence of the more aggressive action of local teachers' associations in recent years. All over the country, teachers are demanding and securing a much greater voice in the administration and management of the school system. They are becoming an active, political force. Thus the position of many thoughtful educators is that teachers should work with the administration in setting salaries and determining the budget, and that they should be free to negotiate as much as they like with the board of education in determining salary and employment conditions. However, once contracts are signed and accepted for the school year, they should be faithfully and conscientiously fulfilled.

Teaching is a wonderful profession. The evidence presented in this chapter shows the professional opportunities that await teachers. Not only is the profession expanding, but society is accepting more and more the point of view that teaching is one of the most exacting of all occupations and that the material rewards accruing to teachers should be commensurate with the quality of endeavor expected.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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These descriptions of the activities of subsidiary organizations give a good insight into the scope of the work of the National Education Association.

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Discusses principles relating to teacher contracts and analyzes provisions of state laws governing teachers' contracts.

———, ———, *Teacher Tenure; Analysis and Appraisal.* Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1947.
An analysis of state laws relating to teacher tenure. Summarizes provisions of the laws of individual states.

———, Department of Classroom Teachers, *Salary Scheduling.* Discussion Pamphlet No. 8 (2nd ed.); Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1947.
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———, Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, *Ethics for Teachers.* Discussion Pamphlet No. 5; Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1945.
Contains suggestions for ethical practices among teachers and lists questions for discussion.

———, ———, *Teacher Leaves of Absence.* Discussion Pamphlet No. 7; Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1945.
States conditions under which boards of education grant leaves of absence and the amount of leave granted by typical city school systems.

———, Research Division, *Analysis of Single Salary Schedules.* Research Bulletin, Vol. 25; No. 3; Washington, D. C.: The Association (October), 1947.
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———, ———, *The Legal Status of the Public-School Teacher.* Research Bulletin, Vol. 25, No. 2; Washington, D. C.: The Association (April), 1947.
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These bulletins, which are issued for alternate school years (the school year beginning in even-numbered years), give detailed analyses of salaries paid by city school systems according to size of city and type of position.

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United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, issued biennially.

This bulletin contains official data on number of teachers employed in our schools, average annual salaries, and similar information. The report is issued biennially and contains data for the school year beginning in odd-numbered years.

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A helpful pamphlet on how to secure information about teaching vacancies and how to apply for a position.

III THE DEVELOPMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN OUR AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

The American secondary school is one of the outstanding contributions of the people of this nation to the culture of the twentieth century. It is one of the great social institutions of the present day. The evolution over a period of three hundred years of this unique agency of a democratic people for the perpetuation and improvement of its social structure is indeed a glorious record in man's continuous struggle to realize his fullest potentialities.

Most of us who grew up after the secondary school was well established accept it as commonplace; we often fail to appreciate fully the significance of its contribution to the fulfillment of the noblest dreams of mankind. No other nation in the history of mankind developed or has developed any institution that compares with the American secondary school in the extent to which it enables every person, regardless of his station in life, to develop his latent potentialities for individual self-realization and for worth-while contributions to the advancement of the society of which he is a part.

This institution is the subject of this book. The book will show how it came to be what it is today, what kind of institution it really is, and how it may be improved so that it will even better serve the ends of our democratic society. While we may well bask in the past glory of the American high school, we should nevertheless be concerned that it retains its vitality, that it shines even brighter as a beacon light for the aspirations and hopes of a democratic people. That, then becomes our challenge.

What Is Secondary Education?

Simply stated, secondary education is the formally organized program of education that is provided young persons after completion of elementary education and prior to higher education. This definition is so general as to be almost meaningless; yet there is no better way of stating in a single concept what secondary education is. We can describe secondary education in more complete terms by first stating its functions and then indicating how the school is organized to serve these functions, but if we do so we shall have a volume, such as the present one, not a definition. We cannot properly define it as the program of education designed to serve the needs of adolescents, for it is not appropriate for young persons unless they have completed elementary school; we cannot justly define it as

the education that is prerequisite for higher education, for few young persons continue in higher institutions. It is, in fact, that phase of our total educational program that follows elementary education. The function of this book is to state what the character of such a program should be.

The concept of secondary education just stated has not always prevailed in America. The earliest secondary schools were independent of and separate from any lower elementary schools. The privileged children who attended these independent secondary schools, called the Latin grammar schools, may or may not have learned to read and write English and to use numbers in the dame and writing schools of the day or from family instruction, but in any event they entered on a rigorous study of Latin. This early secondary school was, however, preparatory to college attendance. Not until a graded plan of elementary education evolved in the second quarter of the nineteenth century was the high school fully integrated into a unitary plan of education.

Secondary education today is a major enterprise of the American people. Over 5,600,000 pupils attend more than 21,000 public high schools; 565,000 more attend 3,000 private high schools; 1,300,000 attend our 2,600 junior high schools; about 3,000,000 additional pupils are enrolled in grades seven and eight under elementary school organization; and about 500,000 attend our 650 public and private junior colleges. More than 300,000 teachers are employed in these secondary schools.

An institution that is responsible for the guidance and development of so many boys and girls during a significant period of their lives is certainly an agency that requires the utmost consideration and thought on the part not only of the teachers and administrators who are directly responsible for its direction, but of parents who entrust their boys and girls to its care for extended periods of their lives, and of citizens generally who wish to be assured that each new generation will continue to maintain America as a great nation in which to live.

TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

While secondary education has common objectives and purposes throughout the broad scope of its program, we do have in the United States a variety of institutions that provide education for youth at the secondary level. The general types are as follows:

The public high school. This public high school is, of course, the predominant secondary institution. It is found in practically every hamlet and community center of this broad land of ours, as well as in our towns and cities. It is one of the basic elements in community life. The most common type is a single four-year unit, simply known as a high school. We also have three-year junior and senior high schools as separate units in an integrated program of secondary education, or a combined six-year high school administered as one unit.

These public high schools vary in enrollment from those with as few as 10 pupils to those with as many as 10,000; in curriculums, from those that offer eight or ten different subjects each year to those that offer 200 or more; from those occupying two or three rooms in a clapboard weather-beaten village schoolhouse to those occupying magnificent stone or brick fireproof structures four or five stories high, with hundreds of classrooms, laboratories, and shops.

These public high schools are of four types: the comprehensive school that offers a diversified curriculum designed to meet the varied needs and interests of its pupils; the restricted general high school that because of size or policy offers a rather limited choice of subjects to serve common needs; the specialized high school that concentrates its efforts on certain aspects or phases of secondary education, such as vocational training; and the part-time high school that serves special groups of young persons.

The public junior college. Many educational authorities consider the thirteenth and fourteenth grades of schooling to be secondary in nature and function; others consider them to be a part of higher education. If these two grades are administered in a separate two- or four-year college, as is the common practice today, they do largely become higher education in function and objectives. However, a number of junior colleges that are administered as part of the secondary school system do function at the secondary level. The trend is more and more to make the thirteenth and fourteenth years a part of secondary education, and the new development in this area—the community college—is definitely a part of secondary education.

The private secondary school. The private secondary school serves an important number of the young persons of the nation. These schools are of three major types: the parochial school, the private academy, and the private high school. Parochial high schools or academies are controlled and operated by religious denominations that wish to add religious instruction to the usual curriculum. The private academy may be controlled and operated by a board of trustees or by an individual or group of individuals, occasionally as a source of income. The private high school may be operated by a teacher-education institution for demonstration and experimental purposes or by some other group interested in providing a special type of education not provided by the public high school.

The private junior college. Like its public counterpart, the private junior college is an institution providing the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling, but under private control. Religious denominations, self-perpetuating boards of trustees, or private individuals may control and operate these colleges. Since the private junior college usually does not have direct connection with a high school, it is more likely to

consider itself an institution of higher learning than a secondary institution.

Public trade schools. Public trade schools, maintained at public expense, offer trade training to any who wish to attend and are qualified. In function they are secondary institutions. Certain trade schools, such as the Milford Trade School in Nebraska, are operated by the state. These trade schools are not true high schools, because few of them offer subjects for general or common education, but they constitute an aspect of secondary education.

Private trade schools. Private trade schools are similar to public trade schools except that they are privately owned and operated. Included in this class are numerous types of business schools, auto and airplane mechanic schools, refrigeration schools, and the like. They are usually operated for profit.

"Secondary education," then, is simply the term we apply to the organized program of education that our society provides for young persons beyond the level of elementary schooling. It varies in scope and nature from a highly verbal study of abstract mathematics to the laying out of soil-conservation terraces on a farm or to clerking under supervision in a five-and-ten-cent store.

The American high school, the outstanding secondary institution, as well as its complementary agencies of secondary education, has come to be what it is today as the result of evolutionary development extending over a period of three hundred years. Let us trace briefly this effort of the American people to develop a unique agency for the realization of our democratic ideas.

The Earliest Secondary Schools in the United States

The first secondary school to be established in America was the Boston Latin School founded in 1635, just five years after the first colonists came to the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Other Massachusetts settlements, such as Charleston, Cambridge, Salem, Dorchester, Ipswich, and Roxburie soon followed this example and also established Latin grammar schools. The kind of secondary institution that these pioneer colonists established was patterned, naturally, after the Latin grammar schools they knew in England.

The Puritan Fathers felt so strongly about not leaving the establishment for schools to chance that, in 1647, soon after their initial provision for secondary education, they passed the famous "old deluder Satan" act. This act required that every town of fifty families provide instruction in writing and reading, and that every town of one hundred families establish a grammar school. Thus the Massachusetts colony passed the first law in America that provided for a system of secondary schools.

The Latin grammar school as it developed in New England was designed to prepare boys for college. Because the colleges, Harvard, for example, required as a basis of admission that their students be able to read Tully, speak Latin in verse and prose, and decline the paradigms of nouns and verbs in the Greek tongue, obviously the secondary school devoted its curriculum to these areas of instruction.

The work of the school was directed to a mastery of Latin and to a knowledge of Greek grammar. Boys entered the school at the age of eight or nine, if possible, and remained until a mastery of Latin and Greek sufficient to meet the demands of the college was achieved—a period of from six to ten years. The school day was long—from as early as six o'clock in the morning to as late as five o'clock in the evening—and the school was in session throughout the year, with only a respite on an occasional religious holiday. Corporal punishment was severe and frequent. Pupils had to memorize their subjects—Cheever's accidence, Libby's grammar, with twenty-five kinds of nouns, seven genders, fifteen solid pages of rules for gender, and twenty-two pages of declensions, and similar books.

Teaching consisted largely in hearing pupils either singly or in pairs recite their lessons—and in applying the rod. The school was a public school in the sense that it was established and operated by the town through its town officials, and supported in whole or in part by public funds. The teacher was selected by the town officials but had to be approved by the minister of the local church. The Boston Latin School was the beginning of secondary education in America.

In spite of the Massachusetts law of 1647, many towns, as years went by, failed to maintain a grammar school. Fines for failure to do so were increased, and still the towns refused or were unable to operate a school. Finally, in 1787, a large number of towns were freed from this obligation, and in 1824 the law was changed so that only seven towns were thereafter required to maintain such a school.

Some Latin grammar schools were established in the colonies outside New England, but their development did not follow until many years later—usually in the eighteenth century—and they were few in number. Little importance was attached to them, for they served a select clientele in only a few of the larger towns, such as New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, and Williamsburg.

The Latin grammar school reached its zenith at about the close of the seventeenth century but declined rapidly in importance thereafter. By the period of the Revolutionary War it had practically disappeared, even in New England.

In spite of its shortcomings as judged by present-day standards, the Latin grammar school made important contributions to American secondary education. It kept alive in a new, pioneer country the tradition of education and the spirit of academic learning. It provided a basis out of

which evolved, during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, a better program of secondary education. Its mere existence kept alive in the minds of the people the need of schools, and its organization and control provided a necessary type of experience from which a better system could be evolved. Moreover, because it was established by poor frontier settlements as a public, or community undertaking, the principle of public control and support of education became firmly established in New England thought and tradition.

The Academy as a Transitory Secondary School

The Latin grammer school declined in importance and influence because it represented a tradition rooted in the past, and it largely ignored the needs of a people who were settling and developing a new world. The classical curriculum of Latin and Greek was serviceable only to those going on to college—mainly ministers. The educational needs of the business man, the local artisan and manufacturer, the shipbuilder, the trader, the farmer, and the minister of the newer and more liberal denominations were ignored by the Latin grammar school of the seventeenth and eighteenth century.

To meet these educational needs of the common people, individual schoolmasters, from as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century, offered instruction in their homes on a fee basis, and sometimes local ministers gave instruction to the young persons of their communities. The Scotch Presbyterians, representing a vigorous dissenting group that settled for the most part in the frontier areas of the middle and southern colonies, were especially zealous in providing educational opportunities of a more practical nature. They looked with little favor on the formal Latin ritual of the Anglican church; consequently their ministers had less need for Latin and Greek. It was out of the efforts of these private teachers and ministers of dissenting groups that a new secondary institution—the academy—developed after the middle of the eighteenth century.

As early as 1732, New York had established an English grammar school for the purpose of offering instruction in practical subjects, such as mathematics, navigation, writing, geography, and bookkeeping. The real development of the academy, however, dates from the establishment in 1751 of the Philadelphia Academy and Charitable School. Benjamin Franklin was the guiding genius in the founding of this school. He had drawn up a plan for such a school in 1749 in his *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania,* but it was not until two years later that the institution was opened.

This academy really consisted of three schools, or departments—Latin, English, and mathematical—each under its own master. In 1754 a philosophical school was added, and in 1755 the institution was rechartered as the College-Academy-and Charitable School. The college, which

later became the University of Pennsylvania, included the Latin and philosophical schools; and the academy, the English and mathematical schools.

THE CURRICULUM OF THE ACADEMY

As planned by Franklin, the academy was to be a practical institution, administering to the educational needs of the citizens. He expressed his views in these words: "As to their studies, it would be well if they would be taught everything that is useful and everything that is ornamental. But art is long and their time is short. It is therefore proposed that they learn those things that are likely to be most useful and most ornamental, regard being had to the several professions for which they are intended." The curriculum was to include English grammar and composition, oral reading, literature, geometry, astronomy, logic, drawing, penmanship, arithmetic, agriculture, horticulture, natural history, commerce, industry, and mechanics, as well as other practical subjects. Franklin did not want to include Latin and Greek but felt it necessary in order to win the support of influential classes. However, it was not to interfere with the pupils' study of English, arithmetic, and other essential subjects. Certainly such a curriculum represented a radical departure from that of the Latin grammar school of New England.

Unfortunately, in practice the broad scope of Franklin's proposal was not realized; for within a short time the Latin and philosophical school, which could grant degrees, overshadowed the more practical English and mathematical school, and the latter was relegated to an inferior position. Franklin himself, in 1789, felt called on to protest against the subordination of the English school and pointed out how it had been reduced to a position subservient to the Latin school.

Even though Franklin's institution failed to achieve its original purpose, the academy, as an institution, proved popular. This new secondary school, in spite of its shortcomings, was symptomatic of the efforts of the American people to develop an educational system that was consistent with the democratic ideals of the people—efforts that later led to the development of that unique and peculiarly American institution, the high school.

Following Franklin's pioneer efforts, a number of academies were established in New England. Important among these were Dartmer (1763), Andover (1778), and Exeter (1781). By 1800, 17 academies had been incorporated in Massachusetts, and by 1860, the number had increased to 154. New York likewise witnessed a rapid growth of academies during the period from about 1785 to 1860, when 170 were in existence. The movement spread to other colonies and, later, to states; thus the academy provided at least a measure of secondary education in all sections of the country.

The curriculum of the academy was broad, compared to the Latin grammar school, and since its dominating purpose was culture, it was possible to introduce almost any subject for study that was included in the intellectual life of the people. Emphasis was placed on the study of the language of the people—English—and on literature. The new interest in natural science was also reflected in the curriculum. The prestigious classical subjects of Latin and Greek, however, were not neglected in most of the academies. Frequently the curriculum was arranged in two departments—classical and English. While the *memoriter* teaching methods of the Latin grammar school were still widely used, experimentation and demonstration in science and mathematics, and composition and declamatory work in English, provided a broader basis of teaching. The theory of mental discipline—training the intellect or developing the mental faculties—characterized much of the aim of the school, although acquisition of knowledge also became a major objective.

SUPPORT OF THE ACADEMY

Methods of supporting the academies varied greatly. Few, if any, could qualify as public schools in the sense that we think of public schools today. In most sections, though, except in the South, the citizens of the community conceived of the academy as a quasi-public institution, although it might be controlled and operated by a private individual and/or group, or by a church. Public funds were frequently allocated for support of the school, although tuition might also be charged individual pupils. Many states chartered these schools and gave them certain privileges under the law. In some states, the schools could receive state support from money allocated by the legislature or from revenues derived from school lands. Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Georgia, Louisiana, and possibly other states enacted laws that provided for the establishment of a system of academies throughout the state and permitted these institutions to receive state support from public funds. Unfortunately, the state plan was seldom carried to fruition; later it was abandoned in favor of local control and development of the new high school.

CONTRIBUTION OF THE ACADEMY

The academy was probably a necessary step in the transition from the aristocratic Latin grammar school brought over from European countries to the democratic high school of present-day America. It arose in response to demands for a more democratic institution that would serve a business and farming citizenry. Its break with the classical tradition laid the basis for the more popular curriculum of the high school of a later day, even though the academy itself became traditional and narrow in its program. It furthered the concept of separation of education from control by

sectarian, religious groups; and because of the appropriation of public funds to its support, it contributed to the acceptance of the principle of a system of free public secondary schools. With the establishment of that system, the importance of the academy passed, and today the relatively small number that exist serve the specialized interests of a small fraction of the population.

The Development of the American High School

The first new type of secondary school, the basis for our modern American high school, was established by Boston in 1821, and was known as the English-Classical School. Three years later the name was changed to the English High School. This new school was designed to extend the common-school education provided in the public elementary schools, which had become generally known as grammar schools, so that pupils could be better prepared for the various walks of life without the necessity of going to the privately controlled academy. The school committee of Boston, in recommending the establishment of the new school, gave these as the reasons for their action:

> The mode of education now adopted, and the branches of knowledge that are taught at our English grammar schools, are not sufficiently extensive nor otherwise calculated to bring the powers of the mind into operation nor to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of these stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed. A parent who wishes to give a child an education that shall fit him for an active life, and shall serve as a foundation for eminence in his profession, whether mercantile or mechanical, is under the necessity of giving him a different education from any which our public schools can now furnish. Hence, many children are separated from their parents and sent to private academies in this vicinity, to acquire that instruction which cannot be obtained at public seminaries. Thus, many parents, who contribute largely to the support of these institutions, are subjected to heavy expense for the same object in other towns.[1]

Thus the new high school was planned as an institution that would provide more extended education for the common people than that provided in the grammar schools of the day; it would provide at public expense an education that was available only privately in the academy; and it would parallel the classical Latin school that primarily prepared for college admission. The course as planned by the Boston school committee was to be three years in length; the school was to be open only to boys of twelve years or over; and to be admitted, the pupil must be "well acquainted with reading, writing, English grammar in all its branches, and arithmetic as far as simple proportion."

[1] Boston School Committee, *Minutes*, 1821, quoted from E. P. Cubberley, *Readings in Public Education in the United States*. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934), pp. 229–230.

This new school proved popular because it broke away from the pattern of classical education found in the old Latin grammar school and in most academies and because it sought instead to extend the common-school program of the elementary school so that it would serve the needs of the children of the common people. In 1827, Massachusetts enacted a law that required all towns or districts containing 500 families or more to maintain a school for ten months of the year in which would be taught, in addition to the subjects of the elementary school, the history of the United States, bookkeeping, geography, surveying, and algebra. Every town with 4,000 or more inhabitants was in addition required to offer Latin, Greek, general history, rhetoric, and logic.

Since Massachusetts had freed all except seven cities from maintaining a Latin grammar school in 1824, the 1827 law indicates that this new institution was to provide a program of preparation both for college and for life. The law was modified later, but by 1840 at least 16 towns in Massachusetts had established high schools, and by 1860, 86 of 128 towns actually maintained the type of school required by law.

The development of the high school movement, however, was slow and beset with many difficulties. The reluctance of the public to pay the heavy taxes necessary, when private groups and agencies were willing to establish academies or even schools called by the name "high school," is understandable. New York, under Governor De Witt Clinton's leadership, took steps to found a high school system through legislation passed in 1847 and 1853. Other New England states followed the example of Massachusetts in due time, and in Pennsylvania the movement also gained some foothold through permissive legislation. In the South, development of the public high school was extremely slow, and the establishment of any state-wide system of secondary education is a relatively recent event. In the new West, the high school embodied the democratic faith of the people, and institutions were established by towns and cities as soon as the population warranted.

In Massachusetts, as we have seen, the law of 1827 compelled certain towns to maintain high schools at public expense, but in many of the states legislation authorizing them was permissive or there was no specific authorization at all. The establishment of a high school by individual districts was frequently attacked by court action. Many citizens were unwilling to pay taxes for the support of a secondary school; they felt that secondary education was a personal matter and should be provided at the expense of those who benefited from it. The laboring class, however, was strongly in favor of free secondary schools and was active in efforts to establish these schools.

The battle for the free public secondary school was fought, and won,

in thousands of individual communities throughout America by the vote of the people, or the pressure of the people on the local boards of education. Because of these efforts, the principle was, of course, accepted in due time by citizens generally, and the establishment of public high schools came to be mandatory by law in each state.

THE KALAMAZOO DECISION

One of the most important milestones in this struggle for the establishment of a system of free high schools was the decision in the Kalamazoo case in Michigan in 1874. The board of education of Kalamazoo had decided to establish a high school and employ a superintendent of schools to administer the school system. A taxpayer of the district brought suit to prevent the collection of additional school taxes for this purpose. He argued that there was no authority to make the high school free through use of taxes levied on the citizens generally and that instruction in the classics and modern languages was not of a practical nature and therefore not for the benefit of the people generally, but rather was for the few and should be paid for by those who wanted such instruction.

In making its historic decision, the Supreme Court of Michigan clearly took this suit as a challenge to the right of school districts to establish and support public high schools, and in no uncertain terms they met the challenge by ruling that a school district was not restricted in the branches of instruction that it could offer or in the grade of instruction that could be given if the voters were willing to raise the necessary taxes. Thus the court ruled in effect that the high school was a part of the program of public education. This decision influenced greatly the action of other courts and legislation of other states, and ranks with the Massachusetts law of 1827 as a major factor in the development of the American high school.

An interesting and somewhat parallel situation can be seen in the development of the program for the thirteenth and fourteenth grades of schooling in recent decades. A number of forward-looking school districts in various states have assumed the right to extend the concept of "common schools" to include these two grades, and have established junior colleges or comparable institutions within the framework of the public school system. Other states enacted permissive legislation that enabled certain school districts under specified conditions to extend the system two additional years upward. Thus today the concept of the "common school" may encompass sixteen years of work, from nursery school through the junior college years.

ACCEPTANCE OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

We see, then, that by the last quarter of the nineteenth century the American people, after an evolutionary history of two and one-

half centuries, had developed a distinctive educational system that was peculiarly the instrumentality of a democratic society to bring to all the children of all the people opportunities to perfect and improve their potentialities and to aid each of them to contribute to the best of his ability to the full realization of our democratic ideals. These are the responsibilities that face each of us who are the beneficiaries of the genius of the American people who have extended to all the people the blessings and privileges of a free and universal program of secondary education.

The growth and development of this institution, the American high school, has been phenomenal during the past seventy-five years. The story of the efforts to develop the kind of school needed for democracy's children will be expanded and elaborated throughout the remainder of this book. Suffice it to say here that many factors in American life have influenced the development of the American secondary school. Its development has not been without pitfalls, and even to this day the high school has not fully broken the shackles of tradition, pressure, and domination by those who would have it serve narrow or selfish ends. That struggle still continues and challenges the best efforts of all of us to make the secondary school more truly the instrumentality whereby a people achieve the ends of democracy.

Factors in the Recent Development of the Secondary School

Ever since it became an accepted part of the American educational system in the latter part of the nineteenth century, the high school has been the subject of voluminous writings, conferences, and committee deliberations and of extensive experimentation and study. Its development has been greatly influenced by these expressions of views and research findings, but its character has also been shaped by pressures from other social agencies and groups. The evolution of any social institution is a complex process, and it is difficult for even the expert to assay properly the factors that have guided its development. Therefore at this point we shall not try to analyze all the elements that have influenced the evolution of the high school but, rather, discuss only briefly some of the more important factors that have affected the form and nature of secondary education.

INFLUENCE OF COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS AND ACCREDITATION

Since the high school became an integral part of a unified system of public education that extends from the kindergarten through the university, it was inevitable that colleges and universities would exert tremendous influence over its development. By prescribing requirements from the high school, the college has largely set the pattern of the

curriculum of the secondary school. The subjects specified for entrance by the dominant colleges and universities of a state or region are, of course, offered by practically every high school within that area. The small high schools, in fact, offer little else, since the energies of the meager staffs are required for teaching courses essential for college admission. In addition, even in many of the larger high schools with diversified programs a large number of the pupils are encouraged, if not required, to fulfill the college-entrance pattern, even though they may not go to a higher institution.

Not only are subjects prescribed by the colleges, but, through the process of accrediting the high schools in conjunction with the state departments of education, they have set minimum standards for granting units of credit, such as length of class periods, recitations or laboratory periods per week, length of the school year, and the like. There is no doubt, as is shown in Chapter XI, that the development as well as the program of the high school has been in a large measure shaped by the colleges and universities of the nation, and that this influence has resulted in a great deal of uniformity among secondary schools.

A similar type of influence has been the regional accrediting associations of the nation. These associations are The New England Association; the Middle States Association; the Southern Association; the North Central Association; and the Northwest Association. These associations set standards for the operation and management of secondary schools, and those that fulfill the requirements of their regional organization may be accredited through election to membership. Since the prestige value of such accreditation is great, the associations have been able to influence significantly the pattern of the secondary program.

PRONOUNCEMENTS OF NATIONAL COMMITTEES AND PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

Several national educational committees and commissions have also exerted widespread influence over the development of secondary education in this country. The first of these committees, The Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, was appointed in 1892 by the National Education Association at the behest of President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard. The high school of that day was a hodgepodge of short ten-, twelve-, or fourteen-week courses, often unrelated and not clearly defined in content or organization. A system of election of courses, which added to the disorderliness and the hit-or-miss nature of secondary education, had also developed. The Committee of Ten organized subconferences for various subject-matter areas, and these groups drew up plans for the high school curriculum, recommending grade placement, time allotments, and general content for various subjects. The report of this committee exerted tremendous influence over the high school program in a day when educa-

tors were struggling with the development of a satisfactory pattern for secondary education.

Other important national committees followed one after the other—all seeking to bring about improvement, as they conceived it, in the program of secondary education. Among the more important of these committees were

Committee on College Entrance Requirements, 1895–1899
Committee on Economy of Time in Education, 1905–1913
Committee on Six-Year Courses, 1905–1909
Committee on Articulation of High Schools and Colleges 1910–1911
Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1913–1918
Presidential Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education, 1913–1914
Educational Policies Commission, 1935–
President's Commission on Higher Education 1946–1947

These committees, except for the one presidential commission, were created by the National Education Association with the United States Office of Education usually cooperating in the work of the group. The Educational Policies Commission, still functioning as an agency of the National Education Association, deserves further consideration. This commission, composed of about fifteen nationally known educators, has for its avowed purpose the formulation of policies for American education. Its pronouncements, usually in book form, have encompassed the scope of educational policy. They represent the best thought of leading educators on matters of major concern in the establishment and administration of schools. Among their more important statements on policy or program are

The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy, 1937
The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, 1938
The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy, 1938
Learning the Ways of Democracy, 1940
The Education of Free Men in American Democracy, 1941
Education for All American Youth, 1944
Education for All American Children, 1948

Subsidiary to the deliberations of national committees has been the work of professional committees and associations in various subject-matter fields. These groups, composed as they are of specialists in the given field, and frequently created by the national professional association for that area, have exerted tremendous influence over the offerings, content, and teaching methods of the particular area.

For almost every specialized subject area represented in the high school program there is a national organization of interested teachers and

specialists, and each of these groups freely sets forth its views on what the program in its area should be. Among the more active of these professional groups are The National Council of Teachers of English; The National Council for the Social Studies; National Council of Teachers of Mathematics; National Vocational Guidance Association; American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; United Business Education Association; Music Educators National Conference; and the National Science Teachers Association.

The views of these groups are set forth principally in annual yearbooks prepared by committees from the various groups, in official magazines, in published reports of special committees, and in speeches and discussions at annual conventions. What actually happens in classrooms in our high schools today is probably influenced more by these professional organizations than by any other single factor, since textbook writers, course-of-study committees, professors of education, and the classroom teacher all avidly seek the points of view and recommendations of these groups.

Other professional organizations of a more general nature have also influenced the development of secondary education. Chief of these are the National Association of Secondary School Principals, which is the professional organization for principals, and the American Association of School Administrators (formerly the Department of Superintendence), which is the national organization for superintendents of schools. Both groups from time to time have established special committees to study some aspect of secondary education, and through their year-to-year activities they have taken stands on many issues relating to secondary education.

RESULTS OF SURVEYS AND STUDIES

Another influence on the development of secondary education in this country has been the survey or study. Three will be cited here. The National Survey of Secondary Education was carried out by the United States Office of Education during the years from 1929 to 1932, through an appropriation made by Congress. It was a comprehensive survey of the status of secondary education in this country, and the findings were published in twenty-eight monographs by the United States Office of Education. The survey was a fact-finding study, useful to students of secondary education in formulating plans and policies.

The American Council on Education, a voluntary professional organization with headquarters in Washington, D. C., established in 1935 a study agency known as the American Youth Commission. The country was in the midst of a severe depression, a period of confusion for youth, since many were unemployed, as well as out of school. The Commission made extensive studies on the status of American youth, and came out

with strong recommendations for improved programs of education, youth service, and the like. The most significant of their publications were: *Youth Tell Their Story* (1938), *Equal Educational Opportunities for Youth* (1939), and *Youth and the Future* (1942).

The third study of national scope to be cited is the Eight-Year Study conducted by the Progressive Education Association from 1933 to 1941. This association, also a voluntary professional group, was active, as its name indicates, in the efforts to develop a more flexible educational program that would better serve the needs of children and adolescents. In trying to break away from the rigid pattern of secondary education that prevailed in the 1920's and 1930's, progressive schools were frustrated by the heavy hand of college entrance requirements, because many of their pupils felt that they must be prepared for college admission. To test the assumption that high school pupils could be prepared for college in ways other than that of fulfilling a prescribed pattern of subjects, the Progressive Education Association got most of the colleges and universities of the nation to agree to accept for a period of five years the graduates of thirty selected high schools, without regard to the pattern of courses taken in high school. Thus the basis was laid for carrying on an experimental program of education in these thirty secondary school systems; the schools were assured that their graduates would not be penalized by failure to fulfill specified college entrance requirements.

The Association, through a staff of consultants in curriculum and evaluation, aided these selected schools in working out new approaches to their curriculum organization. Some of the thirty schools made few important changes; others introduced new types of "core" programs, integrated courses, and the like. On conclusion of the study, the evidence did indicate that an adequate basis for college admission could be achieved through a broader program of secondary education than that prescribed in the usual pattern of college entrance requirements. Moreover, since the inauguration of the study many colleges have modified, some rather extensively, the basis for admission. The schools working in the study also developed an important body of experience from which some of the more important curriculum developments of today stem, such as the core program, the workshop technique for teacher education, and cooperative efforts toward curriculum development. Findings of this study are further discussed in Chapter XII.

MOVEMENTS TO REORGANIZE AND EXPAND SECONDARY EDUCATION

As a result of efforts to evolve a more satisfactory program of secondary education during the past few decades, three educational movements are discernible. These are the junior college movement; the junior high school movement; and the vocational education movement.

The junior college movement. The junior college dates from 1902, when the first public junior college in this country was established by the Joliet, Illinois, school system. It was not, however, until after World War I that this movement really became firmly established in American education. The number of recognized junior colleges, both public and private, now totals over 650, with a total enrollment of more than 500,000 students. Tremendous impetus has been given the movement in recent years, first, as a result of demands of veterans of World War II for education beyond the twelfth grade, and, secondly, through the recommendations made by the President's Commission on Higher Education in 1947 that community colleges should be extensively developed by public school systems to provide a program of extended secondary education covering the thirteenth and fourteenth years.[2] Certain states, such as California, Texas, and Mississippi, have already developed a widespread system of locally controlled junior colleges; New York is experimenting with a system of state-operated institutes that provide vocational and technical education beyond the high school level; a third group of states, among which are Georgia, Wisconsin, and Oklahoma, have developed a system of state-controlled junior colleges or branches of the state university. While none of these plans conforms exactly to the pattern recommended by the President's Commission for the community college, it is from such experimentation in individual states that the patterns will undoubtedly evolve for an educational program that will serve the needs of all the adolescents and adults of our American communities for educational opportunities beyond the traditional twelfth grade. The next two decades or so will very likely witness the extension of the program of education in our communities to include the fourteenth grade.

The junior high school movement. The junior high school movement really got under way in 1910, when Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California, organized a separate school for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. Although this movement started later than the junior college movement, it spread much more rapidly, and most of the development of the junior high school had been achieved by 1935. The junior high school movement received its impetus from two factors: (1) the belief of educators that young persons enrolled in the seventh and eighth grades should have richer educational opportunities than those provided in the usual elementary school program, and (2) the rapid expansion in secondary school enrollments following World War I.

Educators of the early 1900's came to believe that secondary education should start earlier in the school's program. They felt, on the one hand, that the traditional seventh and eighth grades represented a needless waste of time and repetition of earlier work; and on the other hand,

[2] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), 6 vols.

that secondary education should comprise a greater part of the total program. Also, they argued that pupils enrolled in these two grades, because it is the period marked by the onset of adolescence for most children, should have a broader and more varied program that would provide better opportunities to explore interests and satisfy needs.

These psychological and philosophical arguments dovetailed nicely with a pressing need in many cities, after 1920, for greatly expanded educational facilities to care for the influx of secondary school pupils. In making this expansion of school plants, it was much easier to reorganize the school administrative units, since new buildings could be planned on that basis. A new system of junior high schools in a city would relieve the pressure on both the elementary and the high school facilities and provide a much better educational program. Even in school systems that did not adopt the junior high school plan the work of the seventh and eighth grades was modified as a result of the movement.

Vocational-education movement. The third movement of significance in the recent development of secondary education is the addition of vocational education to the program of the secondary school. Although Franklin's Academy and other academies that followed its pattern offered "practical" subjects, designed to provide youth with knowledge and skills necessary in the trades and industries of the period, a systematic program pointed specifically to training for a definite occupation did not become a part of secondary education until the twentieth century.

Agricultural education was the first vocational program, receiving its impetus from the grants of land by the federal government to the states for the establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges in the Morrill Act of 1862. Some of the work carried on by these colleges in the earlier years of the act was definitely on the secondary level.

In due time certain of these institutions separated the two types of work, and established separate secondary agricultural schools. Minnesota was one of the early states to take such action. The demands for agricultural education could not be fully met, however, through these schools, and some of the states established state-controlled district or regional schools of agriculture at the secondary level. Alabama established the first of several such schools in 1889; Georgia established similar agricultural high schools in 1907 and 1908; Arkansas in 1910; Oklahoma in 1907; New York in 1906; Wisconsin in 1902; and so on in many of the states.

The work of these early schools was usually poor in quality, and there was dissatisfaction with the results. This disapproval led to a number of studies and surveys of vocational education in various states, and subsequently the passage of state laws relating to vocational education. Massachusetts enacted such legislation in 1906, New York in 1910, Pennsylvania in 1913, New Jersey in 1913, and Indiana in 1913.

Meanwhile interest in federal legislation was being created through

the efforts of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (now the American Vocational Association), of which Charles A. Prosser, then Deputy State Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts, was the guiding light. As a result of all this interest and agitation, Congress created a Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education in 1914. The Commission submitted its report to Congress later that year.

The findings and recommendations of the Commission laid the foundation for the famous Smith-Hughes Act, passed by Congress in February, 1917. This act has served as the foundation stone for much of the vocational education that has become a part of our secondary program today. The Smith-Hughes law provided federal subsidies to the states for vocational education in trades and industries, home economics, and agriculture. This basic act has been expanded and modified through subsequent legislation, such as the George-Reed Act of 1929, the George-Ellzey Act of 1934, the George-Deen Act of 1936, and the George-Barden Act of 1946. Work in distributive education was added to the program by the George-Deen law, and occupational guidance is now also subsidized.

Although the federally subsidized program has spearheaded the entire vocational movement, educators generally have recognized the importance of this phase of a well-rounded educational program, and vocational competency has become an accepted objective of secondary education. Schools not included in the federally aided program have quite generally expanded their programs of work to include certain types of vocational education, and those that receive subsidies for the authorized programs frequently go far beyond the scope of these programs. The Educational Policies Commission, in *Education for All American Youth*, places strong emphasis on vocational education as an important objective of secondary education, and those who advocate the extension of secondary education to include the thirteenth and fourteenth grades envisage vocational education as a major aspect of this "community college."[3] Chapter XII explores the needs of youth for vocational education, and Chapter XIV discusses the program for vocational education.

Secondary Education as a Product of the Social Milieu

This brief sketch of the development of secondary education in America, although obviously omitting many important facets and influences, should, in closing, emphasize three important observations: (1) the American secondary school as we know it today is the product of a long evolutionary development during which multitudinous factors have had a part in shaping its character; (2) the secondary school of today is an important social agency which the people of this nation have devised to aid them in achieving their aims and ambitions as a social

[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. III, *Organizing Higher Education.*

group; (3) initially the American people established educational institutions modeled on contemporary European types. Although they have worked valiantly to evolve a new pattern of secondary education that will better serve the needs of all the adolescents in a democratically conceived society, the break with the aristocratic concepts and traditions that dominated the European institutions has not been completely realized in practice, even today.

Whenever the secondary school looks too longingly to the past and holds on to traditions that are rooted in the demands of days long gone by, or becomes too subservient to the interests and demands of vested-interest groups, and hence fails to serve adequately the present demands and needs of society as a whole, one thing seems to stand out more clearly than any other: society has sought to create a new type of secondary institution that will better serve the needs of the people.

The Latin grammar school was supplanted in the course of one hundred and fifty years by the academy; the academy, within a hundred years or so, was supplanted by the public high school. What will the secondary school of the future be? The challenge to secondary school teachers and administrators is to interpret properly and adequately the needs of each new generation and to modify the institution as necessary to serve these needs. Such tasks impose four obligations on educators generally:

1. To analyze carefully and critically the ideals, aims, and needs of present-day society in America
2. To play a leading role in helping the social group clarify and improve its aims and ideals
3. To evaluate the program of secondary education to see how well it aids society in achieving its destiny
4. To take roles of leadership in helping society devise a program of secondary education that will better serve our social ends.

So let us now consider briefly the responsibilities of secondary education in our American society and draw some conclusions as to its role in fulfilling the American dream.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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IV THE PURPOSES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Before we may properly consider the structure, program, and provisions for secondary education in America, we need some understanding of the purposes of education in our society. We who work in secondary education profit from a point of reference that not only serves as a guide in evaluating present practices but helps us plan a better program for the future. This point of reference is the concept we have of the function and purposes of secondary education in our democratic society. In this chapter the authors will try to help you develop an adequate concept of secondary education. Then, in later chapters, they will show how different concepts of the purposes of secondary education result in different kinds of administrative and curriculum practices.

The Nature of Education

However, before we explore the function of the school in our democratic society, perhaps we should define the terms that we use extensively. By "learning," we mean changes that occur in a person as a result of experience, with the exception of physiological changes and physical growth. Thus learning is the residual of any experience that remains with the person to change or modify his future behavior. Learning includes the acquisition of knowledge and information, the development of attitudes and dispositions, the acquisition of skills, and the development of abilities, with the exception of the sheer maturation of physical or intellectual ability.[1] Thus a young child touches a hot stove—he has an experience—and on the basis of this experience he learns that in the future he should avoid contact with such objects. A high school pupil hears for the first time a famous Negro singer at a concert, and from this experience he learns to appreciate the talent and ability of members of the Negro race.

"Teaching" is the act of someone (a teacher) directing the experiences of someone else (a learner) in a more or less organized fashion so that learning of the type deemed desirable by those engaged in the teaching process will be facilitated. For example, a shop foreman shows a

[1] For further reading on these concepts, see Ernest R. Hilgard, *Theories of Learning* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1948), and L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (New York: D. C. Heath & Company, 1941), Chap. IV.

new employee how to operate a punch drill and then directs the latter in operating it himself; or a teacher in a school classroom has a pupil write a story about some incident that occurred during his summer vacation and in doing so helps the pupil learn to express himself and to use correct English.

"Education," in the broad sense, is the sum total of the experiences through which a person learns, but in the narrower sense in which we usually use the term it is the social process by which persons are provided with the experiences they need in order to achieve desirable learnings. Thus, because most persons want to be able to read, society provides opportunities so that they may acquire this ability or learning. This is education.

A "school" is an institution or agency established by society for providing an education systematically and on an organized basis. Thus society sees that schools are established so that teachers may guide pupils in the experiences through which they may acquire the learnings that society deems necessary and desirable.

SCHOOL EXPERIENCES SHOULD BE MAXIMALLY EDUCATIVE

Since purposive experience, however obtained, results in learning, young persons learn much outside the school. We all realize that some of our best-educated people have had little formal schooling. Abraham Lincoln, of course, is a classic example. Yet he was the exception. Many other persons of his generation who likewise had little formal schooling remained ignorant and uneducated, and failed in a large measure to achieve the development of which they were capable.

In view of the fact that pupils acquire many learnings outside of the school, the role of the school becomes one of improving and extending the quantity and quality of learning—of giving pupils a more comprehensive stock of learnings than they would acquire in a hit-or-miss fashion out of school and of helping them acquire learnings of maximum value for living in the present day and age. It is the responsibility of the school to provide experiences that will make a maximum contribution to the education of the student. He can and will acquire many learnings outside of the school or with no formal schooling whatsoever. The school exists to see that he achieves learnings that will help him to be an asset to the social group and that will enable him to live a happy, well-adjusted life and make a significant and worth-while contribution to the welfare of the group. The kinds of learning experiences that a school may provide are almost limitless; hence it must select of all of these possibilities only the activities that offer most promise for the education of the individual.

TEACHERS MUST PLAN WISELY

This makes the role of the teacher a significant one indeed, for he must be able to judge what learnings will be most worth while for the pupil, not only in his day-by-day living, but in the years ahead. The teacher must be a keen student of current social conditions and trends and of influences that affect adolescents in general, but he must also be alert to the needs of the individual student.

Almost all the experiences that the school may provide will have some educative value, but the question that always confronts those who plan the school curriculum is whether the experiences planned will be *maximally* beneficial to the youngsters concerned. For example, will the study of Latin contribute as much or more to the development of boys and girls as, let us say, the study of home and family relations? Similarly, if the decision is to offer experiences in studying home and family relations, the teacher responsible for this work must be concerned about the kinds of experiences to be provided during the course. Should a discussion of the physiology of sex be included? Should the problem of divorce be introduced? These are the types of choice that we as teachers make when we determine which of the experiences that the school can provide will be of most value to boys and girls.

The School as a Social Agency

The school is an agency established by society to achieve goals accepted by society as valid and desirable. In our consideration of secondary education we must never fail to keep in mind that the school is an instrumentality of the social group. It must carry out the dominant will and intent of the people comprising that group; otherwise society will repudiate it and turn to some other agency for achieving social ends that previously have been the responsibility of the school.

From its earliest beginnings among the most primitive people, education has had this social orientation; it has aimed at fitting the immature members of the group into the life of the group so that they can contribute to its well-being and promote the good life for all its members. If, for example, one of the characteristics cherished by the group was the ability to hunt and kill game for food, the educational program was planned so that this trait was developed within the youngsters. The accumulated experiences, or social heritage, of the group as to the best ways of finding and killing game was drawn on in the process of educating the young so that this wisdom would be preserved and hence used as a starting point for achieving a better group life.

Education, then, always takes place within the framework of the aims, ideals, and accumulated social experiences of a particular social group at a particular time and place. Education cannot be indifferent to

social goals prized by any group at any given time. As has been shown in Chapter III in relation to the evolution of the American secondary school, education is not something timeless that remains unchanged down through the ages or that follows the same pattern in nation after nation, or even in community after community.

Moreover, once a pattern of program and practices has been formulated for a social institution, such as a school, this pattern, even though arising from the dominant will of the people, itself becomes a stabilizing influence that usually tends to retard change. In time the institution or school itself develops stereotypes and traditions that tend to outlast the social conditions that gave rise to them. Thus we have a continuous education lag.

One task we as educators face is to reduce the amount of this lag by continuously reinterpreting social ideals and aims and readjusting our educational program accordingly, so that the school may be a more effective social factor for group advancement. Educators, as highly able members of the social group and as individuals with status in the group, have responsibilities to help society under changing social conditions to define more clearly its social aims and ideals, and then to lead the people in devising an educational program that will better aid the young persons of the nation to participate in the achievement of these objectives.

THE TEACHER IS NOT NEUTRAL

The teacher cannot be neutral with respect to social values; he must always by the very nature of education work to produce one type of individual, with a particular set of personal traits, moral values, and behavior patterns as opposed to other types that might be developed. In his work with adolescents, he condones, accepts, or encourages one type of behavior, or one point of view, and condemns, rejects, or discourages others. In addition, by the very selection of the type of experiences to be provided by the school, the courses to be offered, the subject matter to be studied, the teaching methods used, and the discipline maintained, the educator is making a choice among alternative possibilities in terms of his interpretation of the aims, ideals, and desires of the social group that maintains the school. Thus the secondary teacher by the very nature of his job—the planning and guiding of the learning experiences of youth—has responsibilities, and large ones at that, for determining how well students will preserve or will modify the ideals, values, and goals that society holds dear.

By selection of such experiences the teacher also decides to what extent he will help adolescents adjust to the demands of their fellow men. Obviously, the school does not have sole responsibility for the education of the young; the family, the church, the agencies of social communication and interpretation, such as movies, newspapers, radio, and magazines

(yes, even comic books), the community group, and the companions of the pupils all play a part in the social direction of boys and girls—in the inculcation of ideals, values, goals, and understandings. The point is that teachers must more clearly understand their role in perpetuating and improving the social structure so that the school may more fully discharge its social obligations.

What Are Our Social Ideals?

In social structure, America is a democracy. We as a people believe in democracy as a way of life. Our currently held concepts of democracy are the goals that we seek collectively as a people to achieve. A large part of the story of the development of this nation is a history of our struggle to improve and perfect the structure of our society so that democracy will be more completely and fully realized for all citizens.

What is the essence of democracy? What are these social ideals that we as a people accept? It is evident to us who grow up in a democratic nation that democracy is more than a collection of social institutions, more, even, than a way of life. It is a great social faith that has evolved out of centuries of struggle on the part of man to seek his divine destiny—to be free, and noble, and good; to be able to enjoy the fruits of this earth, unfettered by agencies or institutions of authoritarian nature that he cannot control. It is a social faith that ennobles man, that dignifies him, that raises him to the lofty conception befitting his existence as an intelligent, self-determining individual. Man in his thousands of years of existence on this planet has fashioned other types of social structures, but democracy is the pinnacle of them all. It is inconceivably better than the social structures of totalitarianism and authoritarianism, which characterize the societies of the world today that have been unable to throw off the shackles of a more primitive social organization.

ARTICLES OF OUR DEMOCRATIC FAITH

The American people have never drawn up a document that states the articles of our democratic faith; rather, these ideals must be winnowed from the ways in which we as a people live, from our utterances, from our laws, from our customs, from the ideals expressed by those who sense the essence of our dreams and visions, from the proposals for change that we are willing to support and from those that we reject. The following articles, taken from these sources, seem to be essential elements in our conception of democracy:

Every human being is of surpassing worth, and the dignity of the individual must be respected at all times. In a democratic society, everything must be subservient to the collective welfare of individual human beings. Of course, every person may not do as he pleases or be protected in all acts he may want to perform; for other human beings

must also be considered. To give one individual free reign results in infringement of the welfare of others and, ultimately, in rights for only the strongest or cleverest. For this reason, democracy believes in a maximum development of the individual that is consistent with the common good of all.

In relations with our fellow men, democracy means that we respect the personality of the individual; that we give him every opportunity and every encouragement to live his own life, to be his true self, to achieve his destiny as a person—so long, of course, as he does not in turn degrade other individuals, or interfere with their privileges of self-determination.

For us teachers, this principle of democracy means, among other things, that we do not give a pupil an inferior status in a class or in school activities because of his race, the social position of his family, his religious beliefs, or his ethnic background; nor, on the other hand, do we elevate him to a position of leadership or give him favored opportunities or privileges because of the social position of his family, the fact that he will do what we as teachers want, his attractiveness and personal charm, or for similar undemocratic reasons.

Respect for the personality of pupils also means that the school will help every pupil achieve his maximum development, help him overcome personal difficulties that may stifle self-realization, and provide him with as many kinds of educational experiences as seem best for him and for fellow pupils with kindred needs. It means that the school will not limit its experiences to those that serve a small, but socially elite group—the college-bound youth. Rather, its program should, within the limitations of its capacity, be planned to provide for the maximum development of all pupils. Teachers and school administrators, moreover, must realize that respect for the individual means that the school exists for the pupils, not the pupils for the school. When new needs of pupils are found that can feasibly be met by the school, the school should make every effort to modify its program accordingly, rather than hold fast to its traditional program.

Equality exists for all individuals. Equality in a democracy has two aspects. There is the legal type of equality in which all persons, regardless of station in life, race, creed, or any other personal qualification, are treated equally and fairly in the administration of justice, have equal opportunity to share in voting and other privileges and responsibilities of citizenship, and have equal access to the benefits assured to the people through their government.

In addition to the equality provided by government, all persons in a democracy have equality of opportunity for self-realization, commensurate with the common good. In a democracy the doors of opportunity should not be closed to a person on any basis other than his own sheer ability and his willingness to accept the concomitant responsibilities.

Obviously, this article of our democratic faith is one of the most difficult to carry out in daily living. Legal equality would not be so hard to realize if the American people were really disposed to provide it, but the implementation of the principle of equality of personal opportunities faces many obstacles. Many discriminatory practices now exist which bar persons from job and educational opportunities because of race or ethnic background. The President's Commission on Higher Education, for example, describes the serious barriers, such as race, sex, religion, and ethnic background, that prevent equality in obtaining a college education.[2] Teachers are aware of the fact that some boards of education refuse to employ fully qualified teachers who have certain religious affiliations or certain social or ethnic backgrounds. Simple observation reveals the absence of persons of nonwhite races in many types of employment. Instances of discrimination could be multiplied almost indefinitely.

In our program of secondary education we are not providing equal opportunities to all young persons. As will be shown in Chapter X, many adolescents do not complete or even attend high school. Sometimes failure to attend school is due to the inaccessibility of the high school, as in rural areas; sometimes to the fact that the boys and girls cannot afford to lose wages by attending school; sometimes to parents who are indifferent or opposed to schooling. Often, however, it is due to the fact that our program of secondary education is still directed to only part of our population—the part interested in and able to do successfully the academic, verbal type of learning that characterizes the program of the traditional secondary school.

If we are to have equality of educational opportunity in America, we must make adequate programs of secondary education equally available to all young persons—programs that will serve the common and specialized needs of all of them in so far as possible. Moreover, if we really want to give every adolescent a fair chance, we shall need to have a system of scholarships to help those who are economically unable to remain in school on their own resources.

People have the ability and right to govern themselves and to decide basic questions of social policy. That people have the ability and right to govern themselves and to decide basic questions of social policy is the political essence of a democratic society. It means that government is of the people, by the people, and for the people. The American people have probably been the most successful in achieving this principle of democracy. We see government by the people in action from the smallest rural school district up through our subdivisions of government to the federal government. Yet none of us would say that our

[2] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy:* Vol. II, *Equalizing Educational Opportunities* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947).

governmental practices are perfect. We still struggle to improve them; to make government more truly responsible to the will of all of the people.

If government rests on the will of the governed, it becomes apparent that all citizens need to be informed on the questions that come within the province of government; that they need to be *educated.* They must possess the ability to secure the facts, and the knowledge to understand the facts, and to arrive at intelligent decisions.

The school needs to give youngsters practice in democratic action. Boys and girls should have opportunities to arrive at group decisions, to decide issues and policies of concern to them. Within the limitations of their ability to arrive at sound decisions and their insight into basic questions of school policy, they should participate in formulating school policy and in making decisions on school regulations and programs. Certainly, too, they should have opportunities to learn to govern themselves and to learn to abide by group decisions, cooperatively determined.

It should be apparent, also, that teachers in a school should enjoy the same opportunities. It is true that pupils and teachers, if they are to enjoy these privileges of group action, need information on and insight into the problems under consideration. Just as citizens participate in self-government, so pupils and teachers should decide school issues on the basis of a critical examination of pertinent evidence, not on the basis of prejudice and self-interest. Chapter XVII further considers democratic practices in carrying on the work of the classroom.

This article of democratic faith recognizes that the judgment of the group is superior to the judgment of one individual. Wisdom comes from the pooled judgment of all.

The individual has an inalienable right to liberty and freedom. Democracy does not truly exist unless all persons are secure against bondage, lawless violence, unlawful arrest and punishment, and the arbitrary action of the agents of government. On the positive side, each individual must have certain freedoms, such as those of belief, of religious creed, of speech, of peaceful assembly, of petition for the redress of grievances, of obtaining facts and evidence on issues and problems affecting group welfare, and of criticizing and proposing change. Of course our exercise of these freedoms and rights must be within the limitations of the common good and the consideration of the welfare of all. Such limitations, however, cannot be narrowly imposed.

One serious problem in this matter of freedom in a democracy relates to whether persons who do not accept the concept of democracy held by the great majority of the citizens should be permitted to express their antidemocratic views and at the same time hold positions of responsibility in the government. To be specific, should communists be permitted to disseminate their views, to hold teaching positions in the school, and to hold government positions?

Communists admittedly wish to change the basic pattern of government of this country. They maintain that their articles of faith represent a higher form of democracy than does the present American system. Obviously, however, communistic principles are not democratic at all if we accept the basic tenets of democracy set forth earlier in this chapter, for under communism as now conceived and advocated the individual is subservient to the state. Moreover, under communism there is no equality of opportunity or freedom of conscience, since those who disagree with the regime in control are denied the full rights of citizenship, or may be punished brutally through legal processes.

Should democracy, then, in adhering to its basic principles of equality of opportunity and freedom of expression and belief, prohibit from assuming positions of responsibility in our schools or from disseminating views through the schools those who advocate the very destruction of the government that guarantees these rights? Such is the basic paradox of democratic government: how can it assure freedom of expression and freedom of conscience, as well as equality of opportunity, yet assure its own perpetuation? There is no pat answer to this dilemma. It seems apparent that democratic government must first assure its own continuance through education as well as through legal steps to curb those who would destroy it; otherwise ultimately no one will enjoy democracy.

Democracy must be learned. It has taken mankind centuries to develop the democratic faith; young persons must acquire this faith if each new generation is not to start the process all over again. Democratic government, then, is justified in taking steps to curb those who would destroy it; communists who seek to destroy democratic government, as the great majority of our citizens know it and believe in it, have no right to hold positions of responsibility in teaching the young or in carrying on the activities of government. Application of this principle, however, must not be used by boards of education and other agencies of government to curtail criticism of the acts and policies of the government or to prevent the intelligent and open-minded consideration of controversial public questions. The real test of loyalty in this respect is whether the teacher encourages—yes, insists—that pupils consider all significant aspects of public questions and arrive at points of view or decisions on the basis of valid evidence, not on the basis of predetermined views of a special-interest group. [3]

Mankind can attain perfectibility. Democracy holds that every individual is capable of achieving perfectibility. Man can be improved; he can more fully attain his status as a human being because he possesses intelligence and reason. The maximum achievements of man

[3] For a discussion of this issue see, Educational Policies Commission, *American Education and International Tensions* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1949).

may be realized through the free play of intelligence, the use of reason, and the application of the scientific method. His most notable accomplishments will come if intelligence is unfettered; if he can devote his creative talents unencumbered to the enrichment of man's existence. He can achieve a new world through education and the use of his creative intelligence, because whatever he accomplishes is for all of the people, so that the standard of living for the entire nation is raised to levels not now realized or even contemplated.

Under a democracy citizens are ever marching forward to new freedoms, new liberties, new responsibilities, and new achievements. If man is to achieve his true destiny the role of education becomes obvious. Every child should have full opportunity to develop his powers and capacities, to study and learn, to acquire knowledge and skill, and to achieve moral stability.

SUMMARY

If the schools are to be agents for the perpetuation and improvement of democracy, teachers must understand thoroughly the basic concepts and principles of our democratic faith. By the nature of their work with the young generation, teachers are significantly guardians of democracy. They must develop in the young an understanding of the basic tenets of democracy and a desire to live democratically—to exemplify these principles in day-by-day living with their fellow men.

The five articles of democratic faith presented here seem to convey most fully the spirit and meaning of democracy. It is by these beliefs that we should be guided in teaching and working with the young in our secondary schools. The school as a social institution is dedicated to the perpetuation of these ideals and to the improvement of our social practices, with the goal that we may better realize our social faith.

The Basis of the School Curriculum

From the discussion up to this point it is apparent that the two basic elements involved in the process of education are the social group and the young person or learner. John Dewey, our foremost interpreter of educational theory, has stated this concept well:

> The fundamental factors in the educative process are an immature, undeveloped being; and certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult. The educative process is the due interaction of these forces. Such a conception of each in relation to the other as facilitates completest and freest interaction is the essence of educational theory.[4]

Thus in planning any educational program we have these two factors to consider: the social group that provides the education; and the young-

[4] John Dewey, *The Child and the Curriculum* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1902), pp. 7–8.

ster being educated. As shown in Chapter XII, the nature of the curriculum is largely determined by the interaction of social and individual needs —two types of needs that are by no means mutually exclusive.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL TO SOCIETY

That the school is a social agency has already been pointed out. At this point we shall consider the obligations of the school to society. It is obvious that since our social structure is a democracy, citizens will expect the schools to educate the young for living in a democratic society. Therefore adolescents must know, understand, and accept the basic articles of our democratic faith; they must live democratically, exemplify democratic traditions in their day-by-day living, and adhere to democratic principles in their relationships with their fellows. Further, the school will be expected to enable the young to take their proper places in the social organization and to contribute to the best of their ability to the welfare of the group.

Lest it appear that the individual's welfare is wholly subservient to that of the group, it should also be recognized that a basic principle of democracy is the belief in perfectibility of the individual; hence one aspect of education for democratic living is the development of individual capacities and potentialities to the highest degree that is harmonious with the common good. Therefore it is consistent with the traditions of democracy that the welfare of the group be aided by the development of the individual, but approval of individual growth is no authority for individual aggrandizement. The school is responsible for the inculcation of all the articles of democratic faith which, taken together, demand that every person assume his share of social responsibility.

ROLE OF THE SCHOOL IN SOCIAL IMPROVEMENT

The obligation of the school to perpetuate our democratic ideals and with them our democratic social structure is clearly evident. A somewhat more debatable question is the role of the school in social improvement. What part, if any, should the school play in seeking to improve our society? Several sharply contrasting points of view are evident in our educational literature.

1. "The school is primarily a conserving agency and should teach only ideals and beliefs that have been generally and commonly accepted by the social group." According to this point of view, the school is not an agent for bringing about basic social change or improvement. Its responsibility is to teach young persons the facts and knowledges that are part of the cultural heritage, and to develop acceptance of and loyalty to beliefs, practices, and principles already a part of the social fabric.

Of course, a foundation for social change is laid in that a well-educated person has the basis for critical judgment and for formulating

plans of action in the future. Under this concept, however, the school itself would not be fostering social change. Typical of this position is the idea that knowledge is power. Yet we are forced to point out that some of our best-informed people—in terms of mastery of knowledge—are least willing as citizens to work for the improvement of our social structure or for the perfection of our democratic practices.

2. "The school, while insuring the perpetuation of our basic democratic values and principles, should develop within pupils the ability and desire to work for the constructive improvement of our democratic society." According to this point of view, the school should lay a foundation for bringing about social improvement in the years ahead. Society is conceived, not as a static thing that will continue from generation to generation in the same mold or pattern, but as a constantly changing structure. Change is inevitable as mankind achieves greater understanding and knowledge and as environmental conditions change. Hence young persons must be educated for change. They must be able not only to adjust to changed conditions of living but to play their part in bringing about desirable changes and in guiding the nature and direction of change.

To give students such an educational foundation, adherents of this position emphasize the need of developing the scientific point of view. The scientific method means that issues and problems are decided on the basis of critical evaluation of the evidence, that possible outcomes of alternative plans of action are weighed before decisions are reached. Our educational program, according to this point of view, should therefore stress practice in scientific inquiry, in investigation, in collection of evidence, and in reaching decisions.

Coupled with the development of the ability to think through critically all problems that arise, this point of view emphasizes the need for developing in pupils a concern for the welfare of the social group. Young persons need to develop a sensitivity to social conditions, to current social stresses and tensions, to maladjustments in our culture, and to failures to achieve fully our democratic faith. To develop this attitude the school should provide opportunities for young persons to analyze present-day social conditions, to investigate social practices, and to study social tensions. Adolescents should be familiar with the broad areas of human living, with the nature of the social problems that confront man in his efforts to achieve a richer, more meaningful life.

3. "The school should seek actively to bring about changes in society." According to this point of view, the school should be a positive agency for promoting social reform through indoctrination of students with the new program of social action. This type of school is usually found in totalitarian countries. Hitler used the schools in prewar Germany to promote Nazism, and the Bolshevists have used the Russian school to indoctrinate the young in the principles of communism.

Thus the use of schools to bring about social changes seems inappropriate as a basis for education in a democracy. And so it is. Who is to determine what changes are to be brought about in society? Obviously, those in political control, who by law may regulate and control the schools. This is the antithesis of free inquiry, which is a basic right of a democratic people. If, on the other hand, society should give teachers the right to determine what kind of change the school is to advocate—highly improbable in view of the school's position as a social agency—we still are denying the right of free inquiry on the part of pupils, and are giving teachers powers that are inconsistent with their functions as members of a democratic society.

Many may say that this third point of view simply is an academic issue in American culture, and has no practical bearing. Yet careful scrutiny indicates that the schools have on occasion been more or less directly used as agencies for inculcating predetermined views and concepts of special-interest groups and factions of our society. The censorship by special-interest groups of study materials and of subject matter to be studied by pupils has dangerous elements of indoctrination that are inconsistent with democratic principles of freedom of inquiry. We are not considering here the inculcation of the basic tenets of democracy; we have already accepted that as a primary responsibility of the school. Rather, we decry attempts to use the schools to indoctrinate students in particular interpretations of social practices that are for the benefit of minority interests and to stifle free inquiry by pupils into the social problems of the day.

THE ELEMENTS OF DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION

While the previous discussion did not present all of the points of view relative to the role of the school in educating youth to aid in the development of an improved society, it did represent the major differentiations in concept. It should be fully apparent that the authors accept only the second position. We believe that the school does have a responsibility not only for the perpetuation but for the improvement of our democracy, and that this latter responsibility is best fulfilled when the school develops within students an attitude favorable to social improvement, an ability to decide what kinds of changes are desirable, and an ability to help bring about these desirable changes. Thereby our democracy will best attain its true destiny and retain the faith and confidence of the American people.

We unhesitatingly state, then, that to discharge its responsibilities to the democratic society which maintains and supports it, the school should

1. Provide young persons with the knowledge essential for intelligent, active citizenship in our American democracy. This knowledge should include an understanding of the development of America; the history of

mankind; the long struggle of men to liberate the human mind and to set man free; the basic articles of faith of our American democracy; the resources, achievements, and promises of American democracy; the stresses and tensions that exist in America; the deficiencies that mark our democratic practices; the enslavement that results from totalitarian, fascistic, and communistic practices; and the workings of our democratic institutions.

2. Provide young persons with a fund of knowledge that will enable them to take intelligent action on problems and issues that arise. Citizens need to know many things if they are to act intelligently in their day-by-day living. The school should provide young persons with this stock of essential learnings.

3. Develop in the young the ability and desire to use the scientific method of inquiry. If they are to face the changing world of the future with confidence, they should be able to decide issues and problems that arise on a logical basis. They should be able to apply the scientific method of inquiry, to arrive at conclusions on the basis of sound and reliable evidence. Moreover, they should know how and where to secure evidence on issues and problems and how to expand their stock of knowledge.

4. Give young persons the opportunity to live democratically. If the school is to educate for democratic citizenship, pupils must have ample opportunity to follow democratic practices in their day-by-day living in the school. This means that they should have ample opportunities to make group decisions, to participate in policy formulation, to assume responsibility, to work cooperatively, and to practice the other arts of democracy. The school itself, in other words, must be a living democracy. Pupils reared in an autocratic atmosphere at home and at school can scarcely be expected to be democratic anywhere.

5. Exemplify democracy in its own life and work. Pupils learn from experiences. The character of these experiences, however, and the ways in which pupils undergo them are in part determined by the examples set for them by the groups in which they work and with which they associate. Pupils will best learn the basic tenets of democratic living when the school itself is democratic in spirit and action. Teachers and administrative officials should endeavor to embody the best practices of democratic living in their work both in their relations with pupils and in their relations with one another.[5]

6. Develop a sensitivity to the problems of group living and an awareness of problems that face citizens in achieving a satisfactory level of living in these areas. Still more important, the school should develop on the part of pupils a concern for human rights and welfare, so that they

[5] See August Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949) for a discussion of the impact of the social class structure in a community on school practices.

will take an active part as citizens in defining areas of social stress and in doing something about the improvement of the conditions of group living.

These, then, comprise the basic elements in the school's program to assure the perpetuation and the improvement of our democratic society. These six elements represent guideposts to aid the school in planning its program of education. They do not as such state courses or activities that the school should provide for the young, but, rather, one of the bases for planning such learning experiences. The last ten chapters of this book will consider the actual program of work by which the school may fulfill its function as a social institution.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL TO YOUNG PERSONS

The second fundamental factor in the educative process, as Dewey pointed out, is the pupil. We have already seen that education is directed toward bringing about desirable changes in the learner through planned experiences. Thus the responsibility of the school to the young is to provide them with experiences that will contribute maximally to the production of desirable changes in their personalities. To express the idea another way, the school is responsible for guiding the growth and development of boys and girls.

The young will grow and mature—socially, intellectually, emotionally, and physically. Nothing can prevent development of some kind, but the important thing for the school is that development can be directed. The experiences that youngsters have in the home, on the playing field, at the movies, in church, in the corner drug store, on the farm, in their father's business—in fact, everywhere—are educative. The responsibility of the school to the young is to plan and provide experiences that will so add to, round out, and even counteract when necessary, these varied activities that boys and girls will become the kinds of persons they should be in terms of their own potentialities and the standards set by society.

The school should be interested in the maximum development of youth; the experiences that it provides each young person should be of maximum value to the individual in achieving this end of education: the development of the kind of person we want in democratic America. What the nature of this development will be depends on our concept of what constitutes the good citizen in a democratic society. These views on the kinds of persons we want as fellow citizens become our statement of the purposes of education.

In planning our program of secondary education so that the young will be guided in their development properly and fully, educators obviously must take account of the persons' innate characteristics, their predispositions, their capacities, their abilities, their interests, their needs,

their attitudes, and their stock of learnings already acquired. In brief, the school must take account of the young.

This may seem to be a trite statement; yet reflect on the extent to which the traditional secondary school program has been planned primarily to transmit the accumulated heritage of the culture that the adult society considered essential, with little consideration being given to whether this was the most important thing that the school could do for young persons at the time, or whether it best served the persons' needs. In fact, as shown in Chapter XI, much of our school practice is based on the premise that the young should "learn" docilely what adults set out for them to learn. When they have reasonably well mastered this predetermined body of subject matter they are presumably educated, and this predetermined body of subject matter is largely the same for all pupils. Little or no account is taken of the future plans of pupils, their developmental needs, and similar factors that might cause a modification in the curriculum if due regard is given to individual pupils.

So our point of view is that the school, while planning a program that will provide the young with the essential elements for assuring the perpetuation and improvement of our democratic society—and we have already indicated that this program does not involve a complete prescription of the curriculum by adult members of the society—should also develop school subjects and activities that will best serve the needs of students and will give them the basis for a happy, well-adjusted life as members of the social group. Ways and methods of working are as important in this respect as are content studied and activities pursued.

Hence in Chapter X we shall consider rather fully the characteristics of young persons, and in Chapters XI to XX the characteristics of the program of secondary education offered them.

The Purposes of Secondary Education

On the basis of the foregoing discussion, we are now ready to define the purposes of secondary education in our American democracy. From the earliest days of formal schooling, mankind has been concerned about the functions that the school should serve. The nature of the educational process has commanded the attention of the greatest philosophers of each era, and the common people as well have been concerned about the functions that their schools should serve. The concepts and points of view of such great educational philosophers as Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, Spencer, and Dewey are all inextricably interwoven into the present fabric of our educational concepts. A program of universal secondary education as we envisage it in America, however, is so new in the development of education that only in recent decades has attention been given to the special functions of the secondary school. Within that time, three

significant and far-reaching statements of the purposes of secondary education in our American democracy are important for our consideration here.

The first is the famous statement of the seven cardinal principles of secondary education that was promulgated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918. This Commission, which had been appointed by the National Education Association, set the following as the main objectives of secondary education:

1. Health
2. Command of fundamental processes
3. Worthy home membership
4. Vocation
5. Citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character[6]

This report, one of the first significant efforts of the teaching profession to define the purposes of the secondary school, was widely acclaimed, and these seven objectives still underlie much of our work in developing a program of secondary education.

The second significant statement of purposes was made by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in a report issued in 1938 and called *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Although this report defines purposes for the total educational program, much of it, of course, relates to secondary education. The Commission grouped the objectives of education in four large areas:

1. The objectives of self-realization
2. The objectives of human relationship
3. The objectives of economic efficiency
4. The objectives of civic responsibility

Each of these groups is subdivided into a number of specific objectives, which are stated as characteristics of an educated person. This statement of the Educational Policies Commission is valuable for its detailed lists of the specific goals that the school should seek to attain.[7]

The third important statement of the purposes of education is also contained in a report of the Educational Policies Commission, entitled *Education for All American Youth.* This report deals specifically with secondary education and presents in some detail the characteristics of a desirable program of education for the youth of America. As a basis for planning such a program, the Commission lists the ten imperative educa-

[6] Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* (U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1918), pp. 10–11.

[7] Educational Policies Commission, *The Purpose of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938).

tional needs of the young. Since these needs provide a basis for planning the work and activities of the school, they become a statement of the purposes of secondary education. The ten imperative needs are given below:

THE COMMON AND ESSENTIAL NEEDS THAT ALL YOUTH HAVE IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in

PLATE 5

HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS STUDY THE BEHAVIOR OF YOUNG CHILDREN. By working with young children, girls enrolled in homemaking classes come to understand better the conditions conducive to successful family life. (Courtesy of the Teachers College High School, University of Nebraska)

economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of

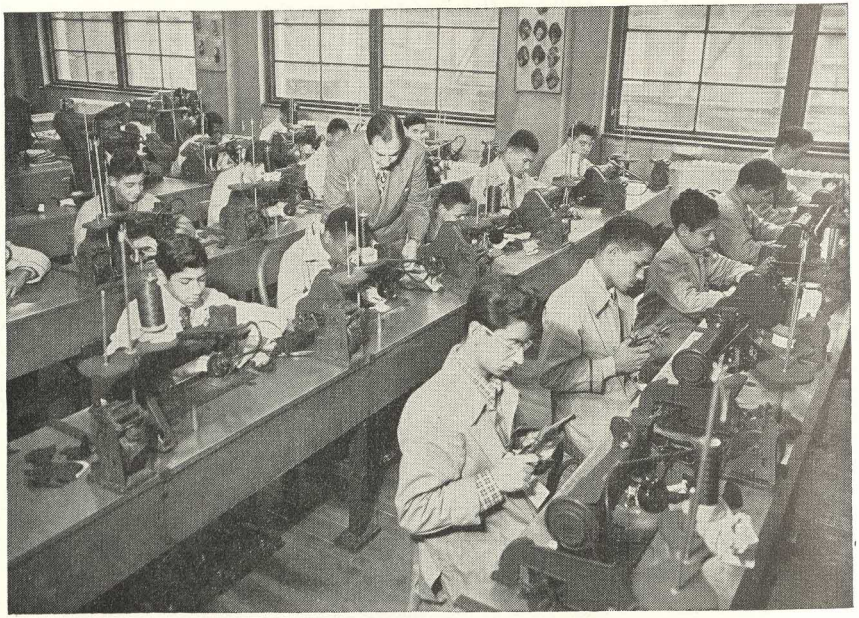

PLATE 6

HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS LEARN A SALABLE SKILL. High schools that offer courses in vocational education are meeting one of the essential needs of youth. (Courtesy of the Central High School of Needle Trades, New York)

science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty, in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.

10. All youth need to grow in ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.[8]

[8] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 225–226.

The authors believe that this statement is the most significant and helpful guide that has been formulated for planning the program of secondary education. We accept it wholeheartedly as a basis for analyzing the program of secondary education in this nation and for presenting our concepts of the kind of program that the schools should seek to develop. It gives, we believe, adequate recognition to the responsibilities of the

PLATE 7

WORK IN HOME DECORATION MEETS AESTHETIC NEEDS. High schools should help adolescents develop their capacities to appreciate beauty. (Courtesy of the Langley Junior-Senior High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania)

school for perpetuating and improving our democracy, and at the same time defines the school's obligation to the young. These ten needs, then, become our statement of the purposes of secondary education. Plates 5, 6, 7, and 8 show ways in which secondary schools are now meeting some of these essential needs of youth. Chapter XII contains a fuller discussion of these needs and presents a basic analysis of the curriculum in terms of these elements.

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PLATE 8

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V RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE FEDERAL AND STATE GOVERNMENTS FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education at public expense is available to practically every boy and girl in the United States. The nation is honeycombed with public secondary schools; they are an integral part of the American way of life. They dominate the hamlet and the small town; they are the pride of the cities of America. They are as American as chewing gum and baseball; for no other nation of the world even approaches the United States in the extent to which it provides educational opportunities at the secondary level.

Who established these secondary schools? Who controls and governs them? What are the respective roles of various governmental units in providing secondary education for the young persons of America? These are the questions which Chapters V and VI answer. Teachers and other secondary school workers need to understand the basis and structure of secondary education if they are properly to discharge their responsibilities for the development and improvement of our secondary schools.

The federal government, the state, the county or township, and the local community or district all have had a role in the establishment and control of secondary schools, and all have responsibilities for its future development. Their respective functions are largely defined by constitutional and statutory provisions of federal and state laws but are in some part at least based on custom and practice. Let us examine in turn the function of each of these governmental units.

The Function of the Federal Government in Providing Education

From the time of the founding of the first secondary school in America by the settlers of the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1635, establishment of schools has been primarily the responsibility of the local community. In essence, that is the American plan, and it has resulted in the great public school system of the present day. What, then, has been the role of the federal government in this process?

When the federal government was created in 1787, a system of locally controlled schools was already in existence in some of the states, and individual schools were functioning in the others. In framing the Constitution, the founders of the republic did not include any provisions relative to education. They apparently regarded it as a state and local matter, or

even a church responsibility. Since the Constitution makes no mention of federal responsibility for the establishment of schools, and since our national government is one of delegated powers, it has no power over education in the various states. In 1791, the tenth amendment to the constitution was adopted, and it specifically retained for the states all powers not granted the federal government. Therefore the establishment of a system of schools has been and remains the legal responsibility of the states to handle as they see fit.

State control does not mean, however, that the federal government has no interest in education and has divorced itself entirely from the development of a public educational system in this country. Under the general welfare provisions of the Constitution, the federal government undoubtedly has a legal basis for carrying forward many educational activities. As a matter of fact, we shall see that the federal government has done a great deal to promote education in this country. It has aided in the development of education through (1) grants and subsidies for education; (2) establishment of schools in dependencies and territories; (3) provision of educational programs for governmental personnel and wards; (4) establishment of emergency educational agencies; and (5) coordination and exercise of leadership in the promotion of education.

FEDERAL LAND GRANTS FOR EDUCATION

The Continental Congress, as early as 1785, provided by ordinance that section sixteen of every township in the new territories of the nation be set aside for the support of schools in that township. Later the famous Northwest Ordinance of 1787 provided that education be encouraged in these territories, and this provision was given substance in 1802, when the federal government granted to Ohio, on its admission as a state, section sixteen of every township for the support of schools. Similar grants were made to other new states in which the federal government owned the original patent to the land, until 1850, when the grants to new states were increased to two sections of every thirty-six that comprise a township. Three states, Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah, each received four sections of every township. Twenty-nine states, all of those admitted since 1802, with the exception of Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, have been beneficiaries of this federal interest in education. In certain states, special grants of saline land were also made to the states.

In addition to land grants for the support of common schools, the federal government since 1802 has granted tracts of public land to many of the states for the establishment and support of universities. Thirty states received such grants. The famous Morrill Act, passed in 1862, granted every state 30,000 acres of land for each senator and representative in Congress for use in establishing a state college in agriculture and mechanics. The older states, with no public domain, got title to land in the

newer states or territories. Eighteen of the states have combined the state university and the agricultural and mechanical college into one university.

FEDERAL SUBSIDIES FOR EDUCATION

Yet federal concern with education in the various states did not end with land grants. The government has adopted the policy of granting sums of money for specific educational undertakings. These have included at the college level outright cash grants to the land-grant colleges for their support, and subsidization of agricultural experimentation and cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics. Grants for these purposes amounted to approximately $41,000,000 in 1947–1948.

Aid to vocational education. It is at the secondary level that the federal government has particularly subsidized education in the states during recent years. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was the first law of this type, and under it funds have been allocated to the states for use in providing education at the secondary level in agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial subjects. These funds are granted to the state, which in turn subsidizes instruction in these subjects in the local secondary schools. Some funds are also available to the states for training teachers for these subjects. The federal funds must be matched in amount by state and local expenditures. Thus the federal government offers financial inducements to the schools to undertake new or broader programs of vocational education.

It is apparent that in following such a policy Congress has not been satisfied with the work of local school systems and has sought to stimulate and aid change in our educational offerings for adolescents. Although it may not have legal authority over the schools, the federal government can play an important part in their development by granting subsidies of this kind. Programs developed in these subsidized areas must conform to general requirements set up by the federal government. The original Smith-Hughes program has been supplemented and expanded by four subsequent acts of Congress, so that now education for the distributive occupations has been added to the three original courses, and a subsidy has also been established for promoting occupational guidance work. A sum of $27,000,000 was appropriated by Congress for these subsidies to secondary education in the year 1947–1948.

Emergency aid. In addition to the continuing annual grants for secondary education under the Smith-Hughes and subsequent laws, the federal government has provided financial support for certain temporary or emergency educational programs. During the severe depression year of 1934–1935, the federal government appropriated $22,000,000 for direct aid to rural school districts in distress.

A new practice in federal subsidization of education developed during

these depression years, inasmuch as the national government directly aided individual needy students to remain in school by granting funds through a new federal agency known as "the National Youth Administration." The aid was granted to both secondary and college students and was extended on the basis of need to a small proportion of the total student body. Students were assigned jobs of one kind or another in the institution, so that the aid did represent payment for work performed, but the aided student could not be used to replace a regular employee of the school or institution.

Further aid to schools during the depression years of the 1930's was made by the federal government in the form of grants under its public works program for the construction of school buildings. These were outright gifts for partial payment of the costs of building projects that met the approval of federal officials.

During the war years of 1940 to 1946, the federal government extensively subsidized programs designed to train workers for war industries, including agriculture. The demand for trained workers in all industries engaged in war production was tremendous, and to try to meet this demand the federal government encouraged secondary schools, and to a limited extent colleges, to set up vocational training courses. The local school was reimbursed by the national government for these programs up to the full cost of instruction and equipment. In 1945, for example, this aid amounted to over $57,000,000.

Congress, however, extended the principle and basis for aid during the war years beyond that of vocational training to cover general school costs in communities that suddenly experienced a great influx of people because of the expansion of war industries or the building of military training establishments. This aid was granted directly to the overburdened individual school district, after consultation of the federal authorities with the state department of education for the state in which the school was located. School costs for which these funds could be used included the provision of additional buildings and facilities, costs of instruction in both elementary and secondary schools, and cost of establishing and operating nurseries and child-care stations for young children of employed mothers. The funds were used only to aid local districts that were in distress because of war boom conditions; they were not for subsidy of the normal school costs of the local district.

Another type of federal aid to schools in recent years has been the allotment of funds for use in providing lunches to school children. The money is made available to state departments of education, which in turn allocate it to the local public schools that choose to accept the plan. The lunch funds are also available to private and parochial schools, and this phase of the grant is administered directly by the federal agency. Total allotments for this program in 1947–1948 were $54,000,000. It now ap-

pears that aid for school lunches is a regular federal subsidy and not an emergency aid.

Subsidies for veterans. A final type of federal aid for education is that allocated for the education of veterans of World War II. The federal government pays the tuition fees and required school costs for veterans enrolled in approved educational institutions. In addition, the student himself is paid a subsistence allowance for living expenses while enrolled in such institutions. The state educational authority approves institutions that qualify under the law; they may include private and public institutions of secondary and higher education level, as well as private vocational schools or similar agencies offering training. The expenditures of the federal government for this aid to veterans for education and training amounted to over $2,300,000,000 for the school year 1946–1947.

In addition, the government aided nonprofit private and public institutions in securing emergency classroom and laboratory facilities and in providing housing for the great influx of veterans under this program. Also, much equipment, machinery, tools, and the like, which the federal government found on its hands after the war and which were useful in carrying on educational programs, particularly vocational, scientific, and engineering courses, were given or sold on a reduced-price basis to public secondary and higher institutions.

Summary. The foregoing summary brings out these important facts about federal aid to education: (1) even though the federal government has no constitutional authority for providing education except under the general welfare clause, it nevertheless has had a continuing interest since the earliest days of the republic in the provision of education for its citizens; (2) by means of subsidies it has stimulated schools to provide certain types of education, particularly vocational education, that Congress deemed desirable; (3) the types and amount of aid have increased greatly since early in the 1930's; (4) the federal government in certain instances subsidizes services for pupils enrolled in privately controlled, as well as publicly controlled, institutions; (5) on occasion, the federal government has largely by-passed the state and dealt directly with the local institution or individual student in granting aid for education.

ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOLS IN DEPENDENCIES AND TERRITORIES

Before becoming members of the federal union, most of the newer states have had territorial status; as such, they were under direct control of Congress, which established the framework for territorial government. This framework has always included provisions for the establishment and maintenance of schools in the respective territories. Therefore in a sense the federal government has really been the founder of the public school system in many of the present states. In fact, in our present

territories it still retains a general control over education similar to that exercised over other governmental affairs. Education in the District of Columbia and the Panama Canal Zone is under the direct jurisdiction of Congress.

PROVISION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR GOVERNMENTAL PERSONNEL AND WARDS

The federal government itself has established and now operates educational programs for certain of its employees. Probably the most extensive programs of this type are the schools for members of the armed services, such as the United States Military Academy at West Point, the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, the War College, and a large number of special training schools in various specialties of the military services. In addition, the government maintains army and naval reserve officer training corps at a number of universities, and in these programs the military subjects are offered by the respective services. Subsistence allowances are paid some of the university students enrolled in these programs.

A recent departure in federal education is the establishment of government-controlled schools in occupied countries for the children of service personnel and civil employees on duty there. The federal government also controls and operates schools for Indian children on certain reservations or pays for their education in local schools under contract arrangements. A further type of federal education is the classes or training courses provided for government employees to aid them in carrying on their work in government agencies. The graduate school operated by the United States Department of Agriculture is an example.

ESTABLISHMENT OF EMERGENCY EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

In the depths of the depression following 1929, the young people of the nation were in desperate straits. Many had to drop out of secondary school because their parents could not afford even the small cash outlay that is necessary to pay the costs of attending public high school. A large percentage of those who left high school either because of graduation or because of dropping out were unable to secure employment. Estimates indicate that during the middle 1930's from 3,000,000 to 7,000,000 young persons, aged 16 to 24, could not find jobs. Thousands were roaming the streets of our cities in idleness or wandering aimlessly about the country. The federal government, as a part of its broad relief and social welfare program during this depression period, created two federal agencies for the express purpose of providing for the welfare of the young. In addition, it set up a work program in the field of education for adults.

Civilian Conservation Corps. The first new federal agency established for the benefit of unemployed youth was the Civilian Conservation Corps, set up in April, 1933. At the outset, the corps was planned as a relief agency through which youth could be provided emergency work on conservation projects. In the early days, enrollees were limited to young men between the ages of 18 and 25, but the age limit was later extended to include those between 17 and 28. Enrollees were selected from among families on public relief rolls, the selection being made by the state offices of the employment services. They were paid $30 a month, but a minimum of $22 of this amount was sent to needy dependents, if there were such. They were also provided with living quarters, board, medical care, and clothing while in camp.

The young men were placed in camps throughout the country; many of the camps were constructed especially for the program. The enrollees worked on forestry and conservation projects of a public nature. The camps were administered by the War Department, and the work projects were directed by the National Park Service, the Soil Conservation Service, the Forest Service, and other federal agencies interested in conservation work.

Although set up as a work-relief program for needy youth, it soon became apparent that the educational needs of the corps were great. Therefore it was not long before educational advisers were added to the camp staffs and an educational program added to the camp's activities. Participation in the special educational program of the camp was voluntary, and classes and similar educational projects were usually carried on during off-duty hours. Nevertheless many enrollees took part in the program and studied subjects at both the elementary and secondary levels; sometimes they had to be taught to read and write. Of course the experience of camp life and work on conservation projects was itself of great educational value.

The C C C, as the Corps was popularly known, continued until the middle of 1942, although its program was curtailed after 1940. At the peak period, in 1935, 505,782 youths were enrolled. The total number participating in the program during its nine years of existence was about 2,000,000. The average annual cost of the program for each enrollee was approximately $1,200. The establishment of the corps was a new departure in federal relations to education, for in this instance the national government itself set up and operated directly an agency for youth that, while created as a part of a work-relief program, nonetheless had major educational significance for the young men participating.

National Youth Administration (NYA). The other emergency federal agency set up during the depression years to serve young people of the nation was the National Youth Administration. It came into existence in June, 1935, and was created to provide work relief and voca-

tional experience for young persons, both men and women, between the ages of 16 and 24. The work projects encompassed a wide variety of activities of a public character. Many were sponsored by state, municipal, and county governmental units in cooperation with the National Youth Administration. Construction projects claimed large numbers of the boys, and the girls were employed principally on homemaking projects. Public-service projects and recreational developments occupied the efforts of most of the other participants. The projects were selected chiefly on the basis of the extent to which they would help young persons in acquiring vocational and work experience that would aid them in securing regular employment. In addition to the projects carried on in local communities, a number of resident centers were established in which young persons were brought together in an institution similar to a trade or vocational school. Shops for offering trade training, many of them elaborately equipped, were set up in these resident centers.

In terms of policy, the National Youth Administration maintained that it was not an educational agency set up by the federal government separate and distinct from our system of locally controlled schools. It claimed that its function was to provide public work for needy young persons that would aid them to become employable. Soon after the establishment of the program, however, educators throughout the country began to attack the agency bitterly. They regarded it not only as a competitor of the public schools in the education of young persons—and a strong competitor at that, because it paid these persons a subsistence wage while they were engaged on the work projects or in the vocational training experience—but also as a direct challenge to our historical policy of the control of the education by the several states.

Any careful analysis of its program clearly shows that the National Youth Administration was an important educational agency, in spite of the protests to the contrary. Its establishment by the federal government must be considered an indictment of the prevailing program of public secondary education, which had largely failed to provide young persons with salable vocational skills. If the secondary schools of the nation had provided a broad program of vocational education and work experience for the young, there would have been no need of a new federal agency. The relief payments where required could have been made through regular relief channels to youth enrolled in public secondary schools. In spite of these protests by educators, the threat of the national government to take over the vocational education of youth has had a salutary effect on public secondary education.

The student-aid program previously described in this section was also administered through the National Youth Administration. It will be recalled that under that phase of the program young persons attending secondary schools and colleges were paid wages by the federal govern-

ment for work performed for the institutions, and were thereby enabled to pay some of their expenses while in school.

The rapid expansion in employment opportunities during the war period nullified the avowed purpose of the National Youth Administration —work relief and work experience; therefore it was terminated in 1943. However, to the very end, a powerful but probably small group who wished to see a national youth program developed under the control of the federal government waged a strenuous fight to retain the agency. Thus, temporarily at least, the efforts of federal agencies to take over the education of youth, or at least some aspects of it, in contradiction to our historic policy of educational control, ended with the disappearance of the "youth problem" during the war period. Yet the battle is certain to be revived at some future date. How the secondary schools may better fortify their position will be considered in Chapter XVI.

Works Progress Administration (W P A). A third emergency federal agency concerned with educational activities was the Works Projects Administration. This agency was established in 1935 to operate a program of work relief for the unemployed people of the nation. An important category of its work projects was educational in nature. These educational projects were set up to provide emergency employment for teachers and other educational personnel. Frequently the projects were cosponsored by local governmental agencies or the schools and institutions of higher learning.

A great variety of activities were undertaken at one time or another, but included were literary and naturalization classes; recreation projects; art activities; parents' education classes; public-affairs forums; education for home and family living; vocational education for adults; correspondence instruction; nursery schools; education in avocational and leisure-time activities; library projects; and a number of other types of educational activities. The scope of the program is indicated from the fact that almost 1,500,000 persons were enrolled in classes in adult education under the Works Progress Administration in March, 1938. Almost 50,000 young children were attending nursery schools supported by the agency, and 900,000 more persons attended educational meetings other than regular classes, such as forums, lectures, and the like. This program, too, was ended by Congress when the rise in employment during the war made a work-relief program unnecessary.

COORDINATION AND EXERCISE OF LEADERSHIP IN PROMOTING EDUCATION

Even though the federal government has no direct administrative control over the schools of the nation, it has long recognized the need of a central agency that will collect information about education in the states and that will be responsible for promoting the cause of educa-

tion. Accordingly, Congress established what was called a "Department of Education" in the federal government in 1867. A commissioner of education, appointed by the President, directs the agency. From 1870 to 1929, the agency was known as the Bureau of Education, and since that date as the United States Office of Education. It is a subordinate part of the Federal Security Agency at present.

The designated functions of the office, as set forth in the original act, are to collect information and statistics about education in the United States, to disseminate any information concerning the management and organization of school systems and methods of teaching that will aid the people of the United States to establish and maintain efficient schools, and otherwise to promote the cause of education. The present program of the office includes principally the following types of activities:

Conducting research studies and investigation of various aspects of education. Staff members are continuously engaged in studying various educational problems of interest and concern to the nation. From time to time, the office has directed special national surveys on authorization of Congress. Such a study was the national survey of secondary education made by a special staff during the years 1929 to 1932.

Statistical reporting. An important function of the office has been the collection of statistics on education throughout the nation. The success of the program depends in large measure on the states, which collect the data from the local school systems. These data, issued as reports in a *Biennial Survey of Education* in alternate years, are very helpful to educators because they give figures on enrollments, attendance, costs, number of teachers, and the like.

Administering federal grants-in-aid. The office administers the continuing, permanent grants made to the states for educational purposes. These aids were described earlier in this section. It is to be noted, however, that the federal government did not give the United States Office of Education responsibility for administering any of the emergency educational programs set up in the depression years of the 1930's.

Publishing bulletins and magazines. Most of the research studies and investigations made by the office, and the statistical information gathered by it, are published in bulletin form. These bulletins are widely used in educational circles for securing information on educational matters. The office also publishes an official monthly magazine, *School Life,* and numerous minor circulars, leaflets, and the like.

Stimulating educational improvement. The office engages in numerous informal activities that seek to promote educational improvement. They include the holding of conferences and meetings, the participation of staff members in numerous national and state meetings, the publication of articles in professional magazines, work with lay groups and organizations interested in education, and many other types of activi-

tory of our Republic the states have accepted and discharged this responsibility.

The will of the people of the state concerning education within the state is expressed in the constitution of the state and in subsequent legislation based on this grant of power. All the states do have constitutional provisions relating to education. These provisions vary greatly in detail and content, but all require, either by direct statement or implication, that the state establish a system of common schools throughout the state.

In setting up a plan for providing education for its citizens, all the states have created a system of local school districts and have required that these local units establish and actually operate the individual schools, always within the framework of powers and authority set up by the state according to law. Thus the local school district is a creature of the state and may discharge its functions only within the grants of power made by the state. If the schools are actually established, operated, and managed by these local subdivisions of government, what is the role of the state as the responsible agent? Let us enumerate some of its most important functions.

CREATION OF A STATE SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS

Obviously, the first and primary function of the state in providing education for its citizens is to create a system of public schools. As was pointed out in the preceding paragraph, all the states have discharged this responsibility by establishing local subdivisions of government known as school districts. In some of the original states, the local school unit was in existence and functioning prior to the establishment of the state itself; therefore the state merely took over a going system of schools and legally recognized them as agencies of the state. In the newer states, though, usually in territorial days under federal promptings, laws were passed that provided for the laying out of local school districts and for the establishment and operation of schools by these local units. Thus has evolved the great American system of public education.

DEFINITIONS OF POWERS AND DUTIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Since local school districts are creations of the state, their powers and duties must be defined by the state. This is largely done through statutory enactments, which become known as the school code or school law. In a few states, however, the state constitution itself contains provisions that prescribe the rights and duties of local districts, and in many states the law gives a state agency, usually a state board of education or a state commissioner of education, power to prescribe certain actions of the local school district.

Since the state in the first place granted power to school districts, it

obviously can alter the authority and functions and duties of the local board of education at any time, and it sometimes does so. For example, numerous states in recent years have passed tenure laws relating to teachers, to the effect that local boards of education may dismiss teachers from their employment only on certain grounds and according to a specified procedure. Further, the state specifies that the local board may employ only teachers who have been certified by the state. Some states prescribe by law or by regulation based on law elements in the curriculum, requirements for graduation of pupils, and many similar aspects of educational planning.

The most extensive circumscription of the powers of the local board of education lies in the methods of financing the school. The state usually prescribes in detail how the school funds may be raised and sets limits on the amount that may be raised by taxation. In fact, practically every action of a local school district in establishing, organizing, financing, and managing a school is circumscribed by law and by regulations of a state agency. Our school codes comprise a sizable volume of law for every state.

In effect, then, the state largely fulfills its responsibility for educating its citizens by creating local subdivisions of government known as districts, then compelling the districts to provide an adequate program of schooling within the limits set up by rules and regulations laid down by the state.

Some states have developed a broad conception of the role of the local district and not only give the district ample freedom for developing a good program of education but stimulate them to do so. On the other hand, regrettably, other states so narrow the authority and scope of action of the local district that the development of an adequate program to meet local needs is difficult, if not impossible. The tendency in recent decades has been to increase the authority and control of the state over the educational programs of the local districts—to prescribe in greater detail the framework within which the local district must operate. Such a practice is detrimental to the best interests of the boys and girls in attendance in the local school if it restricts unnecessarily the freedom of the school to plan the kind of educational program needed in the community. The state should require the local district to provide an ample program for young persons but should not restrict its freedom to adapt its program to local needs or to exceed the minimum program.

SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

A major responsibility of the state in establishing a system of public schools is to provide for their financial support. Since all states use the local district system, the state must adopt a plan whereby the district receives revenues for the operation of its school. School support will be discussed in detail in a later chapter, so it will suffice here simply to indi-

cate that the state discharges this responsibility by authorizing the local districts to levy taxes for the support of schools; then it supplements these funds with state allocations of money to the districts. By prescribing the methods of raising tax money and the amount that may be levied locally, as well as the amount and method of distribution of state funds for the support of education, the state plays a dominant role in determining the nature of the educational program available to the citizens of the state. Assuring adequate financial support of schools is an essential obligation of the state.

PRESCRIBING CONDITIONS FOR CARRYING ON EDUCATION

Even though all states delegate the responsibility for the actual establishment and operation of schools to the local school districts and even though they grant these local units certain powers to discharge this responsibility, all of the states prescribe certain conditions to which the local unit must conform. Hence one important function of the state is to issue rules and regulations relating to the conduct of schools within the framework of powers granted by the state. States vary greatly in the extent to which they actually regulate the operation of the school by local authorities. Among some of the more common and important types of regulatory control exercised by the state are

1. Employing licensed teachers. The local district may employ only teachers who are approved by the state for the particular type of position.

2. Approving textbooks. In some states, a state agency approves textbooks for school use, and only books approved for use in the school may be purchased from tax funds.

3. Issuing courses of study. In most states, the state educational authority may prepare and issue courses of study, and in many states it may require that schools adhere to these courses.

4. Requiring the teaching of certain subjects. A number of states specify certain subjects that the school must offer. Civics and American history are two that are commonly prescribed for the secondary school.

5. Prescribing requirements for graduation. Some states specify certain requirements for graduation from high school, such as the number of units of credit or pattern of subjects that must be included in the pupil's high school program. In New York state, pupils must pass state examinations in certain subjects before they may be graduated.

6. Approving plans for school buildings. In some states, before a school building may be constructed, the local district must secure approval of building plans by a state educational agency. The state also prescribes safety, sanitary, and lighting standards for existing buildings.

7. Prescribing conditions for transportation of pupils. States require that local districts provide transportation for pupils under certain conditions, and frequently they set standards for bus construction and operation.

This list does not begin to exhaust the prescriptions that the state sets for local school districts, but it does indicate the most important, and those most frequently found among the states. Also, it should be evident, as was previously pointed out, that local districts may exercise only powers delegated to them by the state, because these units are creatures of the law. In that sense, their entire sphere of authority is prescribed. However, our list will suffice to show how, in a few specific instances, the state compels the local district to act in discharging its functions.

INSPECTION, SUPERVISION, AND ACCREDITATION OF SCHOOLS

Since the state sets up conditions under which the schools must operate, one responsibility of the state is to see that schools conform to state requirements. This is an inspectorial function, usually performed by the state department of education. In most states this department also accredits the high schools of the state. A school is accredited if it meets certain standards set up by the state educational agency or if it attains a quality of excellency in its work as judged by representatives of the department. An accredited high school has privileges and status not accorded other schools.

To carry out its responsibilities for inspection and accreditation, the state department of education employs a staff of professional people, often known as supervisors, who visit the high schools of the state. In addition to examining the school, the supervisors advise the administrators and teachers of the schools on their problems and in other ways seek to stimulate improvement of the schools. In recent years, the more forward-looking state departments of education have emphasized supervision of the better type and have minimized inspectorial functions.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

In all states, with some exceptions in Massachusetts, teachers must secure certificates or licenses before they may teach in the public schools. The state sets the requirements for certification and usually issues the certificates. In some states, however, teacher-education institutions issue certificates to their own students on completion of the prescribed course. Requirements for certificates are usually stated in the school laws, but in recent years a few states have permitted a state board of education to set the requirements for each grade or type of certificate. The certification function is a very important one, for through it the state may exercise some measure of control over the kinds of people who may teach in the schools.

COMPILATION OF DATA

The state department of education compiles figures from the local school districts on school census, enrollment, attendance, school

revenues, expenditures, and many similar items. These data are useful to school people, state officials, and research workers in studying educational problems and trends.

CARRYING ON RESEARCH STUDIES AND INVESTIGATIONS

To secure a better insight into the educational problems of the state, many state departments of education carry on research activities and make numerous studies and investigations. Most of these studies relate to administrative aspects of education, such as finance, salaries, certification, supply and demand of teachers, tenure, and the like. However, in recent years some state departments have undertaken studies in areas related to child study, teaching methods, guidance, and the like. The research and experimentation function is one of the most important responsibilities of a state department; yet few of them have carried on significant work of this type.

INTERPRETING SCHOOL LAW

If the meaning of school law is not clear or if a decision must be made as to the legality of actions relating to schools, the state educational authority usually has the right to make a ruling or to interpret the law. This interpretation or ruling stands unless the issue is settled later by court action.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

A more intangible, but nevertheless important, function of the state department of education is that of providing educational leadership for the schools of the state. The scope and value of such leadership are largely dependent on the vision and creativeness of the chief state school officer and his staff. It is difficult to define this role of leadership by law or regulation, because states exercise their responsibility in numerous ways. The supervisory program previously mentioned is one important means of stimulating schools and of aiding them in improving their programs. Publication of bulletins, curriculum guides, and similar materials is also helpful. Conferences, institutes, and workshops are frequently used by state educational staffs to point the way to improved practices and to aid schools in solving their problems. In Plate 9 on the opposite page, a consultant from the state department is shown discussing with a committee of teachers ways in which new material issued by the United Nations Organization may be used in social studies classes. Promoting desirable school legislation and securing greater state appropriations for education are important aspects of leadership among state departments of education. Working with schools on experimentation with new practices and procedures is another phase of leadership. There are, in fact, numerous

formal or informal methods by which state educational officers exert leadership and work for improved school programs.

Various states carry on a number of other duties and functions for education within the state, but the enumeration in the preceding paragraph represents most of the more important types of duties. Unquestionably, the concern of the state for education has increased within recent

PLATE 9

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION PROVIDE LEADERSHIP. Consultants from the state department of education can help high school teachers plan vital learning activities for pupils. (Courtesy of the Nebraska State Department of Public Instruction)

decades, and its role in the actual provision of education has expanded. One of the problems of American education is to retain the great virtues of local administration and control of school through the local districts, yet to assure for all boys and girls of the state a good education in good schools.

STATE AGENCIES IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

To carry out their responsibilities for education, all the states have established certain agencies that are authorized to perform many of the functions just discussed. Repeated references have already been made to the state department of education. In addition, all of the states have some type of state board of education that has responsibilities for certain aspects of education within the state. Each of these will be considered in turn.

State department of education. The state department of education is headed by an official known variously as the state commissioner of education, state superintendent of public instruction, or a similar title. This office is one of the oldest administrative offices in American education, dating back to 1812 when New York state appointed a superintendent of common schools. Between 1830 and 1850 all of the northern states and some southern states provided for either an ex officio or a real chief state school officer. The responsibilities and duties of the office have expanded greatly since that time, and today each of the states has a full-time state educational officer who heads a large and important department of state government.

In thirty-two states, the chief state school officer is elected by popular vote; in eight states, this officer is appointed by the state board of education; and in the remaining eight states he is appointed by the governor. Popular election in some states is on a party ticket, but in others the candidate runs on a nonpolitical ticket. In twenty-five states, the term of office is four years; in thirteen states, two years; and in other states from one year to an indefinite term.

State board of education. All the states have some type of state board responsible for certain aspects of education. The functions of these boards vary greatly from state to state. In thirty-nine states, the board has responsibilities over elementary and secondary schools; in the other nine it has supervision only over the federally subsidized vocational education program. Of course, the states also exercise control over public institutions of higher learning within their jurisdiction; in some instances the board that supervises the common schools also exercises control over some or all these state institutions. These latter activities, however, are beyond the scope of this discussion.

In some of the states, the state board of education is the responsible agent under the law for the administration of schools at the state level. In such cases, the chief state school officer is the executive officer of the board and administers the state department of education in terms of policies and rules made by the board. In other instances, the state board serves only in an advisory capacity to the state commissioner or superintendent, and in still other states the board is charged by law with some duties and the chief state officers with others.

The composition of state boards also varies greatly. In six states, the board is composed entirely of ex officio state officials who serve by virtue of their position; in eleven states, the board is composed entirely of members appointed by the governor or, in New York, by the legislature; in Louisiana the board is composed of both elected and appointed members; and in the other thirty states, the board is composed of both ex officio state officials and appointed or elected members.

Desirable features of state school administration. Basing

their arguments on the experience of the states, with such diverse patterns of state school administration, the majority of educational authorities believe that the most satisfactory plan for state administration is to have a state board of education composed of capable lay citizens who are appointed by the governor, or possibly elected by the people on a non-political ticket. Terms of members should be comparatively long—six years is usually recommended—and should overlap so that continuity is provided. This board in turn should appoint a state commissioner of education who will serve as executive officer of the board and head the state department of education. This board, acting on the advice of the commissioner and his staff, would have general oversight of the public school system of the state.

The functions of such a state school administrative organization would encompass those discussed in the previous section. In general, its major responsibilities would be those of assuring every boy and girl of the state an acceptable minimum program of education, and of stimulating each local district to exceed as far as possible the minimum program and to experiment or undertake new practices that hold promise for educational improvement.

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This series of seven articles discuss the kinds of service that state departments of education should provide local school systems.

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VI RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

The discussion in the previous chapter laid the basis for a consideration of the role of the local school district in providing education. We have already seen that the state is constitutionally responsible for providing for the education of the children of the state, but that all states have created local subdivisions of government, known as school districts, which actually are charged with the duty of establishing and operating the schools. This function must be discharged, however, within a prescribed framework laid down by the state in laws and regulations. Let us consider now the place of the local school district in American education.

The Local District as a Unit for School Administration

DEVELOPMENT OF THE LOCAL DISTRICT SYSTEM

Historically, the local district or community preceded the state as a unit for school organization. In the early colonies, local communities established their own schools prior to any action on the part of the central colonial government to establish schools or provide for their establishment. Thus the Boston community established the Latin Grammar School in 1635 for the education of the youth of that community, but it was not until 1642, and more particularly in 1647, that the government of the colony passed a law that made it mandatory for communities of specified size to establish schools. It was not until much later, following the Revolution, that the basic concept of state responsibility for education was recognized. In other colonies, it was also the local community, frequently under the auspices of the local church, that took the initiative in establishing schools. Thus the local community is historically the basis of the public school system of the nation.

In the older states east of the Mississippi River, the establishment of a state-wide system for the education of the children of the state was accomplished largely by uniting these local school systems into a larger state plan. The need for state direction and control arose out of the demands of the people that educational opportunities be available for all children throughout the state.

The newer states, because they could build on the experience of

the older states and because they were encouraged by the willingness of the federal government to aid them in establishing schools through land grants, assumed jurisdiction over schools from the outset of organized government. The state usually was instrumental in laying out the districts and in seeing that schools were organized.

Such an evolutionary process, however, has resulted in a variegated system of education among the forty-eight states, and in a great diversity in the types and functions of the local school districts. However, let us consider briefly the types of district organization in the states.

TYPES OF LOCAL DISTRICTS

The kinds of local subdivisions of government that developed among the states grew out of the pattern of experience of the people who settled the area and out of the peculiar social, political, and economic conditions of the locality. Thus local school districts evolved in large measure as an indigenous adaptation of the pattern of local government with which the settlers were familiar. As the state assumed more and more power over education, it occasionally modified the local structure that had evolved, but even today local districts largely represent the plan that seemed at the time of the original settlements to be best adapted to their peculiar social conditions. A number of types of basic local units for school administration may therefore be identified and described. Many of the states utilize several types of district organization, especially when they have modified the original pattern to meet the needs of more populous areas. The state will be identified, however, in terms of the more common type of district pattern.

The common school district. Common school districts are usually rather small local units created especially for school purposes. They vary in size from those in rural areas that may include only two to four sections of land to those that include as many as fifty or more sections. Many town and city school districts are also considered to be common school districts. Twenty-eight states, listed in Table 7, use the common school district as the basic local unit for school organization. Such a district has quasi-corporate powers granted it by the state, and thus it is a creation of the state. Its boundaries are usually not coterminous with any other local subdivision of government, except that in larger cities it may follow municipal boundaries. The common school district possesses no other governmental functions.

In most of these states, the school districts were laid out in pioneer days, when the population was sparse and scattered and roads were unimproved and travel slow and difficult. Consequently the people wanted their school close at hand so that children could easily walk the distance to the schoolhouse. Also, because schools in early days developed largely from local initiative and enterprise, it was easy for a few families living

TABLE 7

Number of Local Basic School Administrative Units by Types of Predominant Unit, 1945–1946

TYPE AND STATE	UNIT OPERATING			TOTAL NUMBER OF UNITS
	ELEMENTARY GRADES ONLY	SECONDARY GRADES ONLY	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY GRADES	
A. Common School Districts				
Arizona	278	60		338
Arkansas	1,448		731	2,179
California	2,323	259	47	2,629
Colorado	1,644		227	1,871
Delaware			17	17
Idaho	929	33	152	1,114
Illinois	9,058	717	86	9,861
Iowa	3,896		879	4,775
Kansas	6,259	340	307	6,906
Michigan	3,778		794	4,572
Minnesota	7,205		452	7,657
Mississippi	3,509		685	4,194
Missouri	7,855		703	8,558
Montana	1,200	18	164	1,382
Nebraska	6,371	37	579	6,987
Nevada	201	14	22	237
New Mexico	9		94	103
New York	4,372	4	736	5,112
North Dakota	1,850	2	421	2,273
Ohio	561		1,061	1,622
Oklahoma	3,714		702	4,416
Oregon	1,367	110	130	1,607
South Carolina	1,397		306	1,703
South Dakota	3,072	6	337	3,415
Texas	2,168		1,437	3,605
Washington	383	8	300	691
Wisconsin	5,904	76	413	6,393
Wyoming	267	14	80	361
B. Town-Township Districts				
Connecticut	90	1	80	171
Indiana	413	6	712	1,131
Maine	1		114	115
Massachusetts	119		232	351
New Hampshire	147		93	240
New Jersey	363	11	189	563
Pennsylvania	1,396		1,147	2,543
Rhode Island	10		29	39
Vermont			269	269

TABLE 7—*Continued*

TYPE AND STATE	UNIT OPERATING			TOTAL NUMBER OF UNITS
	ELEMENTARY GRADES ONLY	SECONDARY GRADES ONLY	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY GRADES	
C. County Unit District				
Alabama	4		104	108
Florida			67	67
Georgia			208	208
Kentucky	10		246	256
Louisiana			67	67
Maryland			24	24
North Carolina			171	171
Tennessee			152	152
Utah			40	40
Virginia			124	124
West Virginia			55	55

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1945–1946* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1949).

within a small area to unite for school purposes and begin to form a legal district.

In the newer states, the county superintendent of schools or a similar official frequently had power to subdivide the county into districts. He would set up such a unit as the need arose, or would simply draw district lines in conformity with his best judgment.

This evolution of the local district accounts for the fact that in 1946 these 28 states had a total of 94,578 school districts, as is shown in Table 7. Illinois led with 9,861 basic districts. Delaware has a unique situation in that it has established seventeen independent school districts that encompass the larger towns or cities. The remainder of the state is operated as a single unit directly administered by the state board of education. Some authorities prefer to classify it as a state district plan rather than as a common district plan.

The town and township district. Nine states use the town or the township as a basic school administrative unit. This type of district developed in New England, where the early town—which is not only a cluster of dwellings but also the surrounding land extending out some distance from the village or small city—was the original colonial unit of self-government. These towns organized schools as one phase of governmental functions, and the town remains today as the unit for the local administration of schools in these New England states. A New England town may include several villages or centers of population; but the town board of education establishes schools throughout the town as seems appropriate, or it may bring all the children together into one conveniently located central school.

In addition to six New England states, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and

New Jersey use a similar basic school unit, but in these instances it is the township. The township is usually a geographical unit originally laid out for surveying purposes. Originally, at least, the township as a geographic unit did not provide a natural community basis for the development of schools as did the New England town, but such a procedure did at least avoid the multiplicity of units found under the common school district plan. All three of these states have developed additional types of school districts—particularly the independent urban unit—in order to provide a better school organization. Some states classified under another type, however, also utilize the township district to some extent. In Illinois, many high school districts are township units, and many overlap several common school districts that operate elementary schools only. Michigan utilizes the township unit in several sections of the state, particularly the upper peninsula.

The county-unit system. Eleven states use the civil county as the basic school administrative unit. Except for Utah, all these states are southern. Under this system, the county is also the basic school district, although the administration of schools is not a function of the county political government. A county board of education and a county superintendent of schools—agencies separate from the county civil government—have the responsibility of adminstering the schools. The board establishes a number of elementary schools and one or more high schools as seems appropriate to serve the inhabitants of the county. Hence the county is subdivided into attendance areas, much as would be the case in large city systems under other plans.

In some county-unit plans, the larger towns and cities are organized as independent units that are administered by an independent board of education. For example, Virginia has one hundred counties, each comprising a county-school district, but in twenty-four of these counties, a large town or city is separated from the county and constitutes a school district of its own. In other states, such as Florida and West Virginia, the entire county, regardless of whether it contains a large city, constitutes a single school district.

The independent and special school district. In general, the larger cities in the various states are organized as special independent school districts that function independently of the county or township district, where such exist. Except for a few routine matters, such as reporting school statistics and the like, they are independent of the supervision or control of an intermediate unit in the state school administrative plan. In a sense, these independent city districts may be considered as common school districts, except that they usually have greater legal authority and responsibility than do the typical common school units, and, of course, they operate much larger school systems than do the usual common school districts.

In addition to the independent city districts, a number of states have special types of independent school districts that deviate from the basic pattern of school structure within the state. For example, the community high school district in Illinois represents a modification of the typical common school district and the township high school district. The union and joint-union high school districts of California also may be cited in this connection. In Nebraska, certain sparsely settled counties are organized as a county district for high school purposes only, with common school districts within the county providing elementary education.

The junior college district should also be considered in this connection. A number of states permit the establishment of a special junior college district under prescribed conditions. In some cases, these districts are coterminous with a common school or independent city district; in others, a number of regular school districts of the state may join to form a special junior college district. Such districts are created solely for the purpose of establishing and operating a junior college. If the junior college district is coterminous with another district, it is usually governed by the board of education of the district, but if it represents the union of several common school districts, a special junior college board is vested with control.

INTERMEDIATE UNITS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

In all of the states, except the eleven county-unit states and Delaware and Nevada, we find an intermediate type of school administrative unit that stands between the state and the basic local district. In twenty-eight states the county constitutes this intermediate unit, and in the other seven, a supervisory district. Thus the intermediate unit includes the area of several basic units. In states that have the county as the intermediate unit, the administrative officer is commonly known as the county superintendent of schools; in the other states, as the district superintendent. In eight states a board of some type advises the county superintendent.

This intermediate unit itself does not establish or operate schools and does not have the legal powers of a quasi corporation, as do the basic local units. Its functions are specified by law, and in the main comprise clerical and supervisory or advisory responsibilities in relation to the basic units of administration. Also it frequently serves as an intermediary between the state and the local district in collecting educational statistics, distributing state school funds, inspecting eligibility of teachers for employment, and the like. In many states, one of the major responsibilities is that of supervising the rural elementary schools and advising rural and village boards on educational problems.

In some states, the county as an intermediate unit has certain fiscal responsibilities. It may levy taxes on a county-wide basis for reallocation to local school districts; it may be required to raise money for paying the

tuition charges for pupils who do not live in a high school district, or it may pay part of the costs of transporting pupils.

The county as an intermediate unit should not, of course, be confused with the county as a basic unit of administration. In the eleven states that have the county-unit plan, there is obviously no intermediate unit of administration. The independent school districts, where such exist, also are usually free from the control or supervision of an intermediate unit.

Need for Reorganization of the Local District System

In far too many states, the local school district still represents the horse-and-buggy days. We are still retaining the kind and size of district that developed decades ago when the factors influencing school attendance were vastly different from those of today. There is a crying need in many of the states for a major overhauling of the local district system. It is archaic and inefficient, with the result that the American people are not securing the maximum returns possible for the sums expended for public education. Some of the most impelling reasons for reorganizing our local school-district organization are

SHIFT OF POPULATION TO URBAN AREAS

The population of the United States has rapidly become concentrated in our cities. In 1790, approximately 94 per cent of our population lived in rural areas; today only about 40 per cent live in these areas, which, incidentally, by census definition include all towns of 2,500 population or less and all open-country areas. The decline in our farm population has been tremendous, even in states that are still largely rural. This fact, coupled with a declining birth rate, has reduced the number of children attending school in rural areas to only a small proportion of the former figures. For example, in Nebraska alone the number of children attending rural elementary schools dropped from 133,896 in 1923 to 53,939 in 1947. If all or almost all the school districts that existed in the earlier years are retained, the result is a small, inefficient school. Yet such is the situation in many of the agricultural states; for example, Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Iowa.

IMPROVEMENT IN TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES

Compared to pioneer days, when the present school-district system was laid out, ease of transportation has improved greatly. All-weather roads are now common throughout the states, and the use of the automobile and bus makes travel quick and convenient. A child may now be picked up by a school bus and delivered to the door of a larger com-

munity-centered school within the length of time it formerly took pupils to walk to the one-room rural school.

NEED FOR AN IMPROVED PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

The most impelling reason for school reorganization is the necessity of providing a better education for the boys and girls of today. We believe that the kind of education provided pupils a few decades ago is not sufficient to meet the demands of present-day living. All young persons need a good secondary education and equal opportunities to continue their education in an extended program covering the thirteenth and fourteenth years. All pupils should be in a secondary school that has an adequate health program; counseling and guidance service; a diversified curriculum that meets individual needs; library materials that provide rich learning opportunities; audiovisual materials; opportunities for cooperative work with a varied group of classmates; services for handicapped and exceptional children; a work-experience program; and above all, good, professionally qualified teachers.

All too frequently such a program of education cannot be provided by the small independent secondary school. Even if the states still operating with an antiquated district system did try to provide such a rich program for all pupils, it would prove so expensive per unit that the public could properly question our efficiency in the use of public funds.

A number of states have already carried out extensive programs of reorganization of the local school district structure. Table 7 gives some clues to the situation. Arkansas had expanded its district system in the period following the Civil War until a peak of 5,143 districts was reached in 1912. During the years from 1928 to 1931, an extensive reorganization program was undertaken, and almost 1,500 districts were eliminated. In recent years, renewed efforts have further reduced the number, until by 1946 it was 2,179. During an intensive period of reorganization under state direction, the state of Washington reduced the number of districts from 1,323 in 1941 to 691 by 1946. Prior to 1933, West Virginia had used the magisterial district—comparable to the township—as the unit for local school administration. A total of 393 magisterial and independent districts existed. In 1933, by act of the state legislature, all of these districts were abolished, and the 55 counties of the state were established as the basic unit for school organization. From a peak of 10,383 school districts in 1915, New York State had reduced the number to 5,112 by 1946.

A number of other states with obsolete district structures are now engaged in programs of redistricting or are studying the problem. Illinois, Iowa, and Nebraska have initiated intensive activity in this area, and others have launched programs seeking the necessary legislation. Let us hope that during the decade ahead all of the states will formulate a school district system that is adjusted to modern conditions.

The optimum size that should be sought in any state plan for reorganization of school districts has been stated by the National Commission on School District Reorganization:

1. A satisfactory district has at least 1,200 pupils between ages six and eighteen. The more pupils it has up to 10,000, the broader the program it can offer at reasonable costs. If its enrollment is much below 10,000, it teams up with other basic units in a larger intermediate district in order to supplement its services.
2. A satisfactory district is either big enough to provide all needed educational staff and services or it supplements the efforts by being part of a large intermediate district. It may look to the intermediate district for such services as supervision, transportation, and guidance and programs at the junior college level.
3. Within the basic administrative district, the schools should be located so that:

   a. Each elementary school would bring together enough pupils so that at least one teacher may be provided for each grade. In six-year elementary schools 300 or more pupils are desirable.
   b. Each secondary school would bring together not fewer than 75 pupils per grade and a faculty of not fewer than twelve teachers.
   c. But in any case elementary school pupils should not be required to travel more than 45 minutes and high school pupils more than one hour each way between home and school; and each elementary school should serve a neighborhood or small community center, and each high school a larger community, and every community should have a school.[1]

It will be difficult to achieve these goals in the more rural and sparsely settled states, but they represent desirable directions for planning reorganization.

The Importance of Local Control over Education

Many of the powers and responsibilities of the local school district have been delineated in a general manner in our discussion of the functions of the federal and state government in providing education. It is obvious by now that it is the responsibility of the local district to establish, manage, and operate public schools for the education of the children of the district. In carrying out this responsibility, the district must function within the powers granted it by the state through constitutional and statutory law. The district is a creature of the state and possesses only such powers and duties as the state sees fit to delegate to it. Much of the remainder of this book will consider the discharge of responsibilities for secondary education by the local school district.

[1] National Commission on School District Reorganization, *A Key to Better Education* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1947), pp. 10–11.

LOCAL CONTROL MAKES FOR PROGRESS

Local control of the public school is a democratic heritage highly valued by the American people. From the time of the establishment of the earliest schools by the colonists, the schools have remained a local institution carrying out the will of the citizens of the community. Even with the later development of state control over the educational function and with the rise of a state school system, the states have wisely recognized the need of a large measure of local autonomy in the establishment and operation of the schools.

This attitude of the states has made the public school the most democratic governmental agency in America. It has always been close to the people, and it provides our citizens with important opportunities for the exercise of democratic citizenship. In more ways than one, it is truly the cradle of democracy. The states' faith in the people has not been misplaced, for America through local initiative has developed the most far-reaching and extensive—and best—public educational system in the world today.

Local control of schools makes them truly a community agency. Each school may be developed in terms of the needs of its community. Its program may be adapted to the peculiar conditions that exist in that area; it may draw on its supporting community for resources that enrich and broaden the program; it may become a means whereby the community seeks to improve the quality of living of its inhabitants.

The relatively large measure of freedom given the local community to determine the program and curriculum content of the school makes it virtually impossible for the American schools to be used as an instrument for indoctrination or propaganda by the political group temporarily in control of the state or national government, or to any appreciable extent by pressure groups or special-interest groups. This freedom also permits each local school to experiment, to try out new practices, to adopt new policies. If these experimentations prove to be meritorious, other schools may benefit from them and adopt tested modifications of them in their own systems. In fact, a great part of our body of professional insight and knowledge has grown out of the experiences of local schools in trying varying procedures in school administration, teaching, curriculum development, and the like.

WEAKNESSES OF LOCAL CONTROL

Much as we value local control over education in America, it has not been without its weaknesses. One of these has been the failure of many local systems to take full advantage of this freedom to modify the school program to meet local conditions and to adopt better practices after they have been proved worth-while in other situations. Moreover, many

local schools utterly fail to experiment with promising practices. Many are too static, too content to continue traditional practice, even though experience, research, and philosophy point the way to an improved program.

To counteract this inertia and lethargy of the local school few educators, however, would sanction any large measure of increase in the control of the state over the educational program of the community. Rather, we should want the state to exercise leadership through its state department of education to bring about on the part of local school officials and the citizens of the community a better understanding of what comprises a good educational program for modern boys and girls and to develop within the local community a demand for better schools. This is a much surer basis for progress in a democracy than is a mandate or order from higher authority, and certainly it is in itself a more democratic procedure. This function of leadership and stimulation on the part of the state educational agency was discussed earlier. It is consistent with the democratic traditions of American education.

A further source of dissatisfaction with the large measure of autonomy given local school districts results from the shortsightedness and pettiness, and even downright incompetency of far too many local boards of education, and local school administrators and teachers. Anyone can compile a long list of examples of actions of boards of education that have disregarded sound principles of school administration and management or of efficient discharge of public office. Such offenses would vary from outright graft and dishonesty, extravagant expenditures of public funds for unwarranted items, political chicanery, illegal use of public funds, selection and promotion of school personnel on bases other than merit, dismissal of teachers on grounds other than educational, and adoption of petty regulations that unduly circumscribe the private life of the teacher, to a lack of vision and understanding of what constitutes a good educational system.

CAPITALIZING ON LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY

Yes, charges of incompetency against American boards of education may be cited; yet fundamentally we would not want to change our basic American tradition of local control of schools. Out of the same pattern of local responsibility that results on occasion in a disregard of sound educational policy come the brilliant successes of American education—the individual schools and school systems that have made the American educational systems one of our outstanding contributions to world progress and enlightenment.

The cure for defective local school administration is not increased state control but the arousal of the people of the community to demand

good schools. Professional teacher organizations, parent groups, and labor, farm, and business groups can all aid in awakening the citizens of a community to the need of better local administration of the schools. The state education department has a responsibility, too, to point out shortcomings in local school situations and to aid responsible citizens of the community in righting the wrongs committed by local boards of education. Furthermore, the state, as has already been pointed out, should set up minimum conditions that local boards must meet in operating the schools. In fact, the state does curtail the absolute power of boards of education in many matters relating to the external aspects of administration. Outstanding examples of this restraint of local authority are state tenure laws that prescribe conditions under which boards may dismiss teachers, and minimum salary laws that prescribe the lowest salary level at which teachers may be employed.

In summary, our accepted pattern of school control and administration is

1. Local school-district responsibility for the establishment, operation, and management of the schools.
2. State responsibility for prescribing minimum standards and conditions for the local establishment and operation of schools that will assure every child opportunities for a good education.
3. State and federal leadership in stimulating and aiding local schools to become the best educational institutions possible.

The Private or Independent Secondary School

Although the state is constitutionally responsible for the education of the children of the state, it does not require that children attend public schools. They may secure their education by other means so long as the amount and nature of the educational program meets the minimum standards laid down by the state. Hence there has developed in America a system of nonpublic schools that operates with the approval of the state. Such schools have been established by church denominations, voluntary organizations, corporate bodies, or private individuals.

In point of historical development, the nonpublic school preceded the public school as the basis for an educational system in this country. Our earliest colonial schools were not public schools, because they were not established, controlled, and operated by an agency of the government, nor were they solely supported by public funds. In fact, it was not until well into the nineteenth century that the public secondary school developed in this nation. Even with the rapid expansion of public secondary education since that time, the nonpublic secondary school still plays an important role in American education and contributes to the effectiveness and vitality of our system of education.

TYPES OF NONPUBLIC SCHOOLS

From the point of view of control, nonpublic schools may be grouped into three types:

1. The parochial school, established and operated by a religious organization
2. The independent school, established and operated by a corporate organization chartered by the state
3. The proprietary school, established and operated by an individual under the approval of the state

These schools may be boarding schools, in which event the pupils live at the school throughout the term, or day schools, in which event the pupils return to their homes at the close of the school day. Some schools combine both types by boarding pupils who attend from outside the community or who desire for some reason to live at the school.

As to types of programs, it is more difficult to classify the nonpublic secondary schools into distinct categories, but some of the more important types are

1. Church schools. Religious instruction occupies a place in the curriculum in addition to the traditional subjects.
2. Preparatory schools. Emphasis is placed on preparation for admission to an institution of higher learning.
3. Experimental, demonstration, and laboratory schools. Such schools are usually operated by a teacher-education institution in order to provide opportunities for observation and apprentice teaching or for experimentation with new practices and procedures.
4. Academies. Emphasis is placed on a program of general secondary education equally valuable to all pupils. The term "academy" may also be applied to several other types of schools.
5. Military schools. Instruction in military science and practice receives important emphasis, although general and preparatory education are also stressed.
6. Country-day schools. Although these schools are devoted largely to general or preparatory education, special attention is given to physical activities and outdoor life.
7. Tutorial and specialized schools. Some private schools restrict their programs to pupils with special needs. Among these are schools for the hard of hearing, for spastics, for speech defectives, and for those with other physical infirmities, or schools that tutor pupils who need individual instruction.

Obviously, we are not considering here private schools that offer instruction in specialized trades or vocations, such as business schools, radio repairmen's schools, flight training schools, or the like, or schools that offer instruction for the development of individual talents, such as

music, art, or dance schools, that are not substitutes for a general program of secondary education. We are discussing schools that pupils who are subject to compulsory school-attendance laws may attend in lieu of public schools.

THE PLACE OF THE PRIVATE SCHOOL

To send children who are still subject to compulsory school attendance to private schools instead of public schools is a right of parents founded on law and judicial decisions. Many political theorists believe that the right of parents to choose the kind of education their children will receive, so long as it is not detrimental to the best interests of the state, is one of the basic rights that a democracy must assure its citizens. This view has guided the courts in handing down decisions in cases involving private schools.

At various times, particularly following World War I, attempts were made to force all children subject to compulsory school attendance to attend public schools. For example, in 1922 the people of Oregon adopted an initiative bill that was the basis for the enactment of a law that would have required all children between the ages of eight and sixteen to attend public schools. The Supreme Court of the United States, in a unanimous decision, declared the law unconstitutional, and in doing so, said:

> The fundamental theory of liberty upon which all governments of this union repose excludes any general power of the state to standardize its children by forcing them to accept instruction from public teachers only. The child is not the mere creature of the State; those who nurture him and direct his destiny have the right, coupled with the high duty, to recognize and prepare him for additional obligations.[2]

States, then, recognize the right of church groups and other private groups to establish schools that may be attended in lieu of public schools. However, since the state is interested in the welfare of its young people and also in the perpetuation of the democratic form of government under which the state exists, it does exercise the right of control to the extent of demanding that these private schools conform to minimum standards for safe and healthful conditions for the pupils, and that the schools maintain an acceptable minimum program of education that will adequately provide the basic essential of good democratic education. This means that the state, through the state department of education or through local educational authorities, inspects the nonpublic schools to see that they meet minimum standards as to programs, facilities, and the like. Therefore only if the state approves the private schools, can they accept pupils who are

[2] *Pierce* vs. *Society of the Sisters of the Holy Names of Jesus and Mary*, and *Pierce* vs. *Hill Military Academy*, 268 U.S. 510, 45 S.Ct. 571, and 69 L. Ed. 1070, 39 A.L.R. 468 (1926).

subject to compulsory attendance. If these schools wish to add to what the state considers the necessary basic program for democratic education —if they wish to add religious, military, or any other type of instruction— that is entirely a matter for the schools to work out and develop.

STATE AID TO PRIVATE SCHOOLS

States frequently give direct or indirect aid to the nonpublic schools or to the pupils who attend them. The most significant form of aid is exemption from direct taxation on property used for educational purposes by approved schools. A few states provide that pupils attending nonpublic schools, particularly parochial schools, may be transported to these schools on buses operated at public expense, or that the parents of these children may be reimbursed for the expense of transportation to parochial schools.

In a case arising from New Jersey, the Supreme Court of the United States, in a much-discussed decision rendered in 1947, upheld by a five to four vote the right of the local school board to use tax money to reimburse parents for the transportation expense of children attending specified parochial schools. Several states provide pupils attending nonpublic schools with textbooks and supplies from tax money. Following World War II, the federal government paid the tuition charges for veterans of the war who attended any approved school, be it public or private, and in addition, with grants of funds or surplus war property, aided private colleges and universities in securing housing and facilities.

On the other hand, the Supreme Court of the United States, in 1948, ruled in an eight to one decision that public schools may not in any instance provide or aid in the giving of religious or sectarian instruction as a part of the program of the school. This decision makes illegal a practice of many public schools, that of excusing pupils during school time so that they may attend classes in sectarian religious instruction provided by church groups. The decision, of course, does not interfere with the long-established right of a child to attend parochial or other nonpublic schools in lieu of attending public school. It does prevent the public school from giving aid of any sort to sectarian religious teaching. The relation of the state and public education to sectarian education and nonpublic education has been widely discussed in recent years, and undoubtedly other court rulings will clarify the constitutional basis of the entire issue.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF NONPUBLIC SCHOOLS

The nonpublic school has made an important contribution to American education and it undoubtedly will continue to serve important functions in our society. These functions may be summarized as follows:

1. To prevent the domination and control of the individual by the state from becoming too extensive. Because public schools are obviously

instruments of the social policy of the community or state, they conform to the wishes and beliefs of the majority and carry out a program that meets the needs of the majority. All pupils are subject to the same influences and controls. Private schools may provide programs that better serve the views and wishes of minority groups, or of parents who object to the program or instruction offered by the public school. The private school thus becomes an agency of protest against the practices of the public school.

2. To seek to improve educational practice. The private school may experiment with new practices, procedures, and services and thereby add to the sum total of professional knowledge of what constitutes sound educational practice. The ease with which it may experiment or introduce new practices often exceeds that of the public school, because it need be concerned only with the wishes of its selected clientele.

3. To provide services not possible in public schools. To board pupils, for example, would be an unwise and unwarranted venture for most public schools, yet this service is needed, and is desired by some parents. Specialized nonpublic schools offer many other types of service that the public schools might like to supply.

4. To provide types of instruction not commonly found in public schools, or not possible for them to offer. Sectarian instruction and military training, except in a few public schools that provide such training in cooperation with the War Department, are examples of programs provided by nonpublic schools but not by public schools. Small classes and specialized programs though not unknown in the public schools, are more common in private schools.

The main problems regarding nonpublic schools that should concern educators and the public alike are two:

1. Do pupils who are educated in nonpublic schools learn the basic principles of democratic living so that the best interests of the state are served? How far should society permit dissent to go in the education of its youth? To state the extreme possibility, should an agency that advocates and teaches doctrines contrary to the accepted beliefs of the social group be permitted to establish schools for youth which carry on an educational program that seeks to overthrow the political, social, or economic structure of the present society?

2. Does the existence of a system of nonpublic schools weaken public schools to the extent that they cannot carry on an adequate program of education for the youth of the community? If a sizable proportion of the citizens of a community send their children to private schools, they are likely to want to see expenditures for public schools reduced and taxes cut to the point where the public schools are unable to offer an adequate program or, as may be the case, to provide the very services that these parents may be seeking in the private schools. A duplicate system of

secondary schools, especially in small communities, may result in two poor programs rather than one good one.

External Pressures on the Secondary School

Up to this point, the legal controls over secondary education have been considered. Anyone who studies secondary education in America realizes, however, that other controls of an informal and nonlegal nature play an important part in determining the character of the program of secondary education in any community. It is difficult to analyze all of these pressures on the secondary school and to weigh their interrelationships in influencing the character of secondary education. Nevertheless, three factors that have important influence on the development of secondary education in this country will be discussed here. Two others—college entrance requirements and accreditation procedures—are considered in Chapter XI in connection with an analysis of the curriculum.

INFLUENCE OF COMMUNITY OPINION

Obviously, an important factor in determining the character of the educational program of any community is the views of the citizens of the community. This is as it should be, for under the American concept the school is fundamentally an agency of the community, established to educate its young people. Its program must inevitably reflect the wishes, desires, and beliefs of the citizens of the community. This community control is exercised through three means: the amount of public funds made available for the support of the school; the policies and plans adopted by the board of education as representatives of the community; and the value patterns and mores of the community. These factors, for example, will determine whether the high school has a program in home economics, Latin, auto mechanics, work experience, athletics, guidance, sex education, or, in fact, any phase of a school's activities. The kinds of buildings, facilities, and equipment available for carrying on secondary education will be determined by the community.

More intangible than this type of control, though, is control over the nature and quality of instruction. The attitude of the citizens of the community will determine in a large measure whether the teaching is progressive and forward-looking or traditional and reactionary; whether the high school classes consider current and controversial problems or stick with time-honored subject matter; whether the high school seeks to promote better relationships and understanding among diverse cultural, racial, and religious groups, or breeds intolerance and conflict; in short, whether the school will serve as a conservator of the cultural heritage or will seek to bring about improvement in our social structure.

Many teachers exclude consideration of significant social problems in social studies classes because of fear of criticism from parents or a "witch-

hunt" by overzealous groups of patriotic citizens. Biology teachers refuse to include matters on sex and reproduction because they fear community antagonism. Similar examples of teachers who avoid certain topics and subjects, even though they and other educators generally agree that these matters constitute a desirable area of study for high school pupils, may be multiplied over and over again.

All this points to an obvious conclusion: if the secondary school exists not only to perpetuate our democratic way of life but to improve it, teachers must help the people of the community to develop a clear understanding of the purposes of secondary education and the means whereby these purposes may best be achieved.

PRESSURE FROM SPECIAL-INTEREST GROUPS

The influence of special-interest groups on secondary schools is difficult to assay; obviously, though these groups seek to modify the program of the school, they can do so only through the legal agencies. Hence the modification is an exercise of public will, or it will not occur. For example, a patriotic organization may agitate for the requirement of a course in American history; if the legislature passes such a law, it is an expression of public sentiment, and as such the schools must accept. The manipulation of public opinion is a phenomenon known to all teachers, but when it becomes the will of the people it is a mandate to the schools.

Yet there are informal pressures on the schools that they may choose to accept or ignore. They come from organized civic, patriotic, political, religious, or subversive groups that want to use the schools to further their own ends or to exercise an unofficial censorship over what the schools teach and the content of their textbooks. Insofar as teachers and administrators yield to such pressure, these agencies exercise a control over the schools. Business interests, as well as labor groups, have on occasion sought invidiously to influence consideration of a topic or problem that they considered either favorable or detrimental to their respective interests.

Teachers must be alert for these pressures and pursue a course in their work that will best promote the development of boys and girls for living in a democratic society; to do this is better than to indoctrinate their students with a set of beliefs predetermined by a special-interest group, be it reactionary or revolutionary. Moreover, they must so assist the entire citizenry of the community in becoming articulate about their schools that the schools have the guidance of the total group rather than that of an organized minority.

DOMINATION OF THE TEXTBOOK

The textbook is an important factor in determining the nature and character of the program of secondary education. The program of

studies, the subject-matter content of the courses, and the curriculum organization in general are strongly influenced by the textbook. Many teachers follow it slavishly, with the result that work in their courses is largely restricted to what is contained in textbooks. Whatever a textbook writer considered important becomes the range of subject matter with which the pupils have contact. His judgment on topics or units to be covered is accepted as valid, often rather blindly by the inept and poorly-trained teacher.

High school course offerings also are largely determined by the textbooks available. Schools may retain a course in the program of studies because textbooks are available, even though the course has outlived its usefulness. More particularly, though, they will not add new courses or new types of experiences if suitable textbooks are not available.

Teaching methods are also dominated by the textbook. Class periods are used to question pupils on the content of the textbook or to check exercises contained in the book. Some inferior teachers even spend much of the time during the semester having pupils in rotation read paragraphs from the text. Evaluation of pupil growth is limited to testing pupils' knowledge of the content of the book.

States may control the curriculum through prescription of the textbooks to be used in the schools. Thus, by limiting the freedom of the local school in even the selection of texts, the curriculum is further restricted and dominated by outside agencies.

Of course, many, many of our best teachers do not rely solely on a textbook or permit their instructional activities to be limited by it. The domination of the textbook is declining in numerous secondary schools as teachers become more adept at using a broader basis for teaching. Of course we should recognize that the textbook has an important function to serve in American secondary education. The harm comes when (1) schools follow it so rigidly that other subject matter and other types of experience are limited or excluded entirely in the work of the class, and (2) teachers rely extensively on a dull, routine, recitation-type of teaching centered around the textbook.

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VII THE SUPPORT OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Most everyone has some concern about the financing of secondary schools—pupils, for it determines in a large measure the kind of educational program they will have; educators, for it determines salaries, facilities, breadth of curriculum and program, and the like; parents, for it determines in part the quality of education their children receive; and the citizen generally, for it affects not only his tax bill but the quality of future citizenship of the country. Certainly, teachers need to be informed about the ways in which schools are financed and about some of the important problems involved so that they may be more active and more intelligent participants in cooperative group action designed to bring about improvement in school finance. This chapter will consider methods of financing schools and major issues of school finance.

Types of School Revenue

Since education is a state function, each state decides how it will finance its public schools. The people, through the state legislature, determine where the money is to be raised and by what means. Hence the financial support of public education varies considerably from state to state. It is not the purpose of this chapter to present a detailed analysis of procedures followed; rather, to describe in broad outline the important features of school finance plans, and to raise some of the important issues that educators need to consider in working for the development of a good school finance system.

Public schools are supported almost exclusively from tax funds. A small amount of nontax revenue is derived from the income of permanent trust funds and lands originally given to the states by the federal government and from miscellaneous nontax receipts, such as fines, licenses, and the like. The percentage of current revenues for public schools derived from the various sources in 1945–1946 is as follows:

	PER CENT
Taxation, including appropriations from public tax funds	96.7
Miscellaneous sources: licenses, fines, etc.	2.4
Income from permanent trust funds and school lands	0.9

An insignificant amount—too small to show in the percentage breakdown—comes from grants from philanthropic agencies and gifts from organizations or individuals.

Public schools also secure funds from the sale of bonds issued in accordance with the laws of the state, from the sale of school property, and from insurance adjustments. These are called nonrevenue receipts and are used for financing permanent improvements in the school plant. The bonds must be liquidated from tax revenues.

It is obvious that public schools should depend almost entirely on tax money for their support. The battle for free public secondary schools was won many years ago; it is therefore unthinkable that the American people should tolerate the charging of tuition fees for high school pupils, although it is still the practice in a number of states to charge tuition for students attending junior colleges, which many educators consider to be secondary institutions. Revenues from endowment and trust funds and school lands are decidedly limited; they could not be increased appreciably unless the state set aside new funds to add to these assets, and such a measure is not a part of public policy in our country. It is obvious, then, that public taxation will continue to constitute the only important type of current school revenue.

Sources of School Revenue

Funds for public schools are raised by all units of government concerned with the provision of education. Thus the federal government, the state government, the county as a school district and frequently as an intermediate unit, and the local school district all raise tax funds for the support of schools. For the United States as a whole the local district constitutes the chief source of revenue, although the state itself is contributing an increasingly larger proportion of funds. The percentage of school revenues raised by the various units of government in 1945–1946 is as follows:

	PER CENT	PER CENT
Local Sources		
Local district	57.9	
County sources	6.0	63.9
State sources		34.7
Federal aid		1.4

It should be noted that in some instances the county is a basic local administrative unit and in others an intermediate unit; nevertheless, all county revenues are considered to be local revenues.

SOURCES OF FUNDS IN VARIOUS STATES

The states vary greatly in the extent to which they depend on state and local sources for school revenues. Table 8 shows the percentage

of current school revenues derived from state, local, and federal sources in the various states for 1945–1946. The table includes both elementary and secondary schools, since revenues for each unit are not collected separately in most states.

The extent to which the state itself accepts responsibility for the financial support of schools varies from almost total support in Delaware to practically no state support in Iowa. In eleven of the states, one half or more of the current revenues for support of public elementary and secondary schools during that year was provided from state sources. Federal aid is a minor factor in school support in all the states. Dependence on local

TABLE 8

Percentage of Current Revenues for Public Elementary and Secondary Schools from State, Local, and Federal Sources, 1945–1946

STATE	PERCENTAGE OF REVENUES FROM		
	STATE	LOCAL	FEDERAL
Delaware	87.2	11.1	1.7
New Mexico	86.8	12.3	0.9
North Carolina	69.3	25.2	5.5
Alabama	67.5	28.8	3.7
West Virginia	59.3	40.0	0.7
Louisiana	58.3	35.8	5.9
South Carolina	58.1	40.7	1.2
Arkansas	57.0	39.9	3.1
Washington	56.7	38.8	4.5
Oklahoma	53.8	43.7	2.5
Georgia	50.9	42.7	6.4
Mississippi	47.0	50.0	3.0
Michigan	46.8	51.3	1.9
Arizona	46.4	52.6	1.0
Kentucky	46.1	49.8	4.1
Virginia	44.1	54.9	1.0
Utah	43.7	53.5	2.8
Florida	43.4	54.7	1.9
California	42.3	55.9	1.8
Texas	41.2	58.2	0.6
Indiana	38.3	61.1	0.6
Missouri	38.3	61.0	0.7
Ohio	37.3	61.5	1.2
Tennessee	36.8	61.9	1.3
New York	34.1	65.5	0.4
Minnesota	33.4	65.8	0.8
Oregon	30.1	69.3	0.6
Pennsylvania	30.0	69.5	0.5
Maryland	29.8	69.1	1.1
Maine	25.4	73.5	1.1

TABLE 8—*Continued*

STATE	PERCENTAGE OF REVENUES FROM		
	STATE	LOCAL	FEDERAL
Wyoming	24.8	63.9	11.3
Vermont	24.0	74.8	1.2
North Dakota	21.3	78.1	0.6
Nevada	21.1	75.3	3.6
Montana	19.5	79.6	0.9
Wisconsin	19.5	79.4	1.1
Idaho	16.6	82.7	0.7
New Jersey	15.6	83.6	0.8
Illinois	15.2	84.3	0.5
Connecticut	14.7	84.8	0.5
Massachusetts	12.9	86.7	0.4
Colorado	9.1	90.4	0.5
South Dakota	9.0	90.1	0.9
Rhode Island	8.6	90.4	1.0
New Hampshire	7.1	92.1	0.8
Kansas	6.1	93.3	0.6
Nebraska	4.8	94.4	0.8
Iowa	3.8	95.5	0.7

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1945–1946* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1949).

sources is the highest in the states of the Middle West and the New England region. States in the southern and southwestern regions have accepted the principle of state support more extensively than have those in other regions.

During recent years the state has increasingly played a larger role in the support of public schools. In 1920, state support accounted for only approximately one sixth of the current revenues; in 1946, it comprised one third of the revenues. An analysis of reports from individual states for the years since 1946, when the last official figures for the entire United States were compiled, reveals that many states have materially increased the amount, as well as the proportion, of state support for schools.

In each legislative year since 1946 more and more of the states that in that year provided only a small proportion of state aid for education have increasingly appropriated larger amounts from state sources. For example, the Iowa legislature in 1947 adopted the principle of general state aid to schools and appropriated large sums for support of the common schools. In 1949 the amount of such aid was further increased. Kansas and Colorado in recent years also increased in significant amounts state allocations to schools. Furthermore, a number of states that for years have made sizable appropriations for state support of schools also are increasing the amount. The citizens of California, for example, in 1946 adopted an amendment to their state constitution that made it mandatory

for the state to allocate an average of $120 a pupil to the support of the local public schools. Previously, state aid amounted to about $90 a pupil.

Most students of school finance feel that a sizable proportion of school revenues should be raised at the state level and then be allocated to the local school on some predetermined basis. The reasons for such views will be discussed later. First, let us look at local school support.

LOCAL SUPPORT

It has already been pointed out that about two thirds of the current revenues for support of public schools comes from local sources. Most of this support is raised by the local district itself, although a small percentage comes from the county as an intermediate unit. Local school funds are derived almost entirely from a tax on property. A small percentage may be derived from special taxes and business licenses, such as a poll tax or a license to sell liquor, from interest earned on cash balances, and from tuition paid by individuals. Many secondary schools receive tuition for the education of children who do not live in a district maintaining a high school, but the tuition is paid by the district or by the county as an intermediate unit and hence comes from tax funds.

The amount of money that a local district may raise from a property tax is usually limited by the school laws of the state. This limit may be stated as a rate of taxation, such as a number of mills per dollar of assessed valuation, or as a flat sum of money. Thus the local board of education is circumscribed in what it can do in the way of raising school revenues, and hence in determining the kind of program to be offered, the salaries to be paid teachers, and the like. If the limit is so low that the local board must levy the maximum rate year in and year out in order to operate even a minimum program, it is hamstrung in its efforts to provide the kind of program needed for the children of its community.

In some states the citizens of the district are permitted by popular vote to raise the statutory limit to a specified amount for a stated number of years. This procedure makes long-term educational planning uncertain and forces the board of education and the supporters of better schools to wage an intensive campaign periodically for approval of the increased mill levy. Thus few states have been willing to give local citizens a free hand in determining the amount of local taxes to be raised for schools.

The effect of such a prescription is illustrated in the case of Nebraska. This state forces the local districts to raise locally about 90 per cent of all current revenues used to support the schools. Until 1947, the state law set a mill limit beyond which the districts could not go. In that year, however, as an emergency measure during the inflationary period, the state removed all statutory limitations on the power of the local district to raise taxes. Immediately, the mill rate doubled, even trebled in some districts; in most districts it has been increased by at least a fourth or more. Al-

though this situation illustrates the effect that state limitation had on the local district, it should be pointed out that the removal of the tax ceiling by the state may result in placing such a terrific burden on owners of local property, that they may in retaliation demand unwise curtailment of the school program.

In a few larger cities of the country, the board of education secures its local revenues as appropriations from the municipal government. When this is the procedure, the city government becomes the real factor in determining school budgets, and the board of education is subservient to it. Such a plan is almost universally condemned by educators; in the management of the schools it is much better for the board of education to be directly responsible to the people of the community.

STATE SUPPORT

Even though the states are constitutionally responsible for education within their confines, it is only recently that many of them have accepted an appreciable responsibility for financing the schools from state funds. In 1930, only one state—Delaware—raised more than half of its revenues for public schools from these funds; in 1946, eleven states contributed more than half of the revenues from state sources. In 1930, seven states raised one third or more of the revenues from these sources; in 1946, twenty-six states could be placed in this category.

In the history of the modern school, sizable support from state sources is therefore a recent venture, developing largely from two diametrically opposed economic phenomena—economic depression and war inflation—both of which gave rise to serious problems of school finance. During the depression years local property owners in many districts were unable or unwilling to shoulder the heavy tax burdens that were required for the support of schools. The citizens turned to the state as an agency that could use other sources of tax revenue, particularly the income tax and the sales tax, for help in financing schools. On the other hand, in the period of inflation following the outbreak of war in 1939, limits on local tax rates prevented local boards from raising enough revenue to operate the schools adequately on a higher-priced economy, and the demands for increased state support arose again.

The state may, and usually does, use a varied tax pattern to raise public revenues. Among the types of taxes used by the states are taxes on individual and corporation income, on sales or gross receipts, on alcoholic beverages, on tobacco products, on motor vehicles and fuels, on severance of natural resources, and on property. Thus by broadening the tax base, the burden on property owners may be lessened. State funds for support of local schools are appropriated to the schools by the legislature, usually on a biennial basis. State aid may be appropriated from the general funds of the state, or certain tax sources may be earmarked for school support.

These state funds, in turn, are allocated to the local school districts on one or more of these bases: "general aid," which is distributed in proportion to some measure of educational load, such as number of pupils or of classroom units; "equalization aid," which is distributed on the basis of a formula that shows educational need in terms of the financial ability of the district; and "special aid," which is used by the state to subsidize specific educational undertakings, such as transportation, programs for handicapped children, and the like. The merits of each type will be considered later when the characteristics of a good school finance system are presented. The distribution of state funds is administered by the state department of education, and comprises one of its important duties.

FEDERAL AID

The federal government plays a very minor role in the current financing of schools. The relations of the federal government to public education were discussed in Chapter V. At present, federal support is confined to special aid granted schools for carrying on specific aspects of the educational program. Continuing aid is granted for the support of various phases of vocational education, and emergency aid has been granted for the support of war-training programs and related activities and school lunches. The federal funds are appropriated by Congress, and are administered by the United States Office of Education. Most of the funds are allocated to the states, which in turn allocate them to local schools that qualify for the special aid.

Characteristics of a Good School Finance System

Methods of financing public schools among the states are a hodgepodge of forty-eight different patterns. Yet out of the welter of experience that is inherent in our federal system of government have emerged several important principles of good school finance. Teachers need to be familiar with these criteria so that they may work effectively as members of the profession and as citizens toward the development of a sound plan for school finance in their respective states.

The most important of these principles are explained in the following paragraphs.

THE TAX LOAD SHOULD BE DISTRIBUTED EQUITABLY AMONG THE CITIZENS

Taxes for the support of public schools constitute only one part of the total tax load of the citizens. Other subdivisions of the local government, such as the municipality, the township, and the county, and the state government and the federal government must all be supported by tax funds. The total tax system should be such that the payment of taxes falls as equitably as possible on all citizens and on legally created agencies,

such as corporations, which enjoy the protection of the state. This means, in general, that taxes should be levied in accordance with the ability of the citizen or corporation to pay taxes. Taxes for school purposes need to be integrated into the total pattern and their equitableness judged on the basis of the total tax load paid by the individual or the corporation.

The three major sources of tax revenues are taxes on income; excise taxes, such as sales taxes, import duties, taxes on admissions, taxes on "luxury" items, and the like; and direct taxes on property. We have already stated that about two thirds of the tax revenues for schools are raised locally. Most of this revenue represents a direct tax on property within the local or intermediate school district. Because of the effect it would have on business and trade and on residency of people the use of the income tax and of many of the excise taxes as sources of local revenue by the local district is impractical. Hence, in the states (see Table 8) that raise a large proportion of the school revenues locally, most of the cost of schools is borne by property owners.

Whether this tax on property owners is equitable depends on the total tax system of the state, but many observers believe that it constitutes an unjust load in a number of states. Certainly, ownership of property is not the sole criterion of the ability to pay taxes. Income of the individual or corporation is also an important measure of tax-paying ability. Our economic history shows that wealth has become more and more concentrated in our business and industrial centers, and that less and less of our income is derived from ownership and use of property. The property tax year-by-year has become a less equitable tax than was true decades ago when our population was much more rural than it is today. Our tax structure must take account of this shift in economic life.

This principle of equitability, then, is one of the main justifications for state aid to the local school district. It is feasible and expedient for the state to use a diversified tax system, which may include an income tax and such excise taxes as the sales tax to raise governmental revenues. The extent to which such revenues are distributed to the local school district for education represents the extent to which the burden may be reduced on local property.

The same principle justifies federal aid. The federal government can distribute its tax burden equitably over the entire country. It can tax income regardless of where it concentrates and distribute this revenue in terms of need throughout the nation. It can use a diversified tax system that levies taxes among all the citizens in accordance with ability to pay, regardless of incidence of local residence. However, as was explained earlier, from the point of view of sheer equitability the federal government does not have to aid local school districts. It could reserve certain tax sources for the use of state and local units of government in support of schools so that the net result would provide equitability insofar as the total

load is concerned. Other principles of school finance must also be considered.

TAX REVENUES FOR THE SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS MUST BE ADEQUATE

Obviously, if we are to have a good program of education for our boys and girls, the schools must have adequate revenues to finance it. Our method of supporting schools should be such that it will yield adequate revenues year in and year out, regardless of the ebb and flow of business conditions. The adequacy of revenues is judged in terms of the money needed at existing price and wage levels to pay for the services, supplies, and facilities essential to a good educational program. The revenue system should be flexible enough and broad enough to yield the necessary revenues without causing undue hardship on the taxpayers and yet provide a constancy of revenues so that temporary fluctuations in business or agricultural conditions do not jeopardize the school program. In times of rising prices and wage levels the tax system should have enough leeway to raise additional revenues, and in times of falling prices it should be easy to lower the load on the taxpayer. Also, it must be broad enough to provide for desirable expansions in the school program, improved services, and new demands on the school. It is only when schools are adequately financed that they can offer a varied program of studies that meets the specialized as well as the common needs of pupils. Vocational education of the type shown in the accompanying Plate 10 is not possible on meager budgets.

THE TAX STRUCTURE SHOULD PROVIDE STABILITY IN REVENUES AND PERMIT FISCAL PLANNING

It is difficult to administer and operate a school system if the amount of tax revenues available from year to year cannot be foreseen. It is essential for sound educational planning that the board of education and the school staff have some assurance as to the amount of school revenue that will be available in the immediate years ahead. Too exclusive a dependence on one type of tax or one source of revenue may result in instability. Narrowly defined limits for local property taxes make it difficult for schools to maintain stable revenues in periods of rapidly changing prices, such as the depression years of the early 1930's, when assessed valuations of property dropped sharply, or the inflationary years of World War II, when costs went up faster than assessed valuations.

THE SCHOOL FINANCE SYSTEM SHOULD ENABLE EVERY SCHOOL DISTRICT TO SUPPORT A BASIC MINIMUM PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

In fulfillment of our democratic principles, we believe that every child has the right to a program of education adequate for demo-

cratic citizenship. He should have an equality of opportunity in benefiting from the educational program of our democracy. This goal sounds fine as a principle, but in actual school practice it is difficult to realize. The cost in dollars and cents does not necessarily measure the merit of an educational program, but certainly on the average, when applied to tens of thousands of school systems, the amount of money available for each child does have an important bearing on the quality of the schooling. It is important therefore that at least a minimum amount of money be avail-

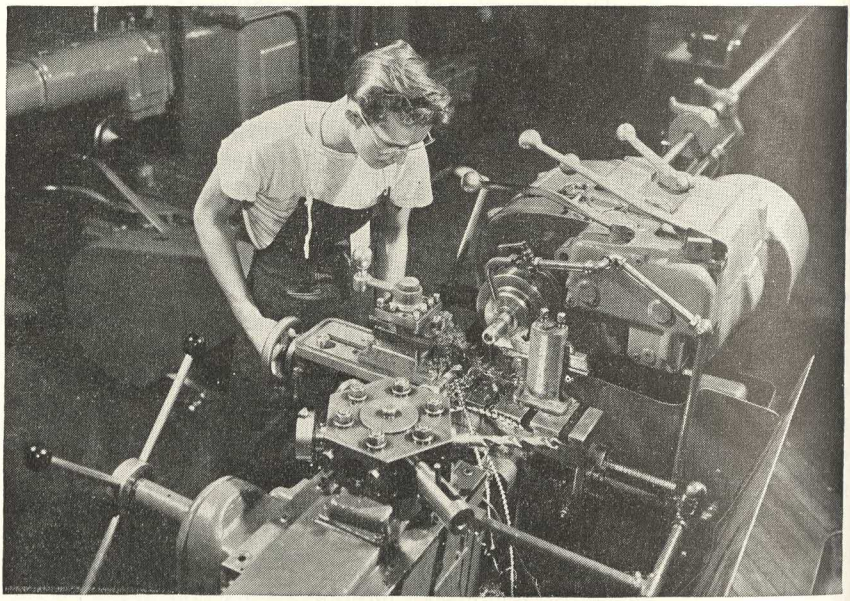


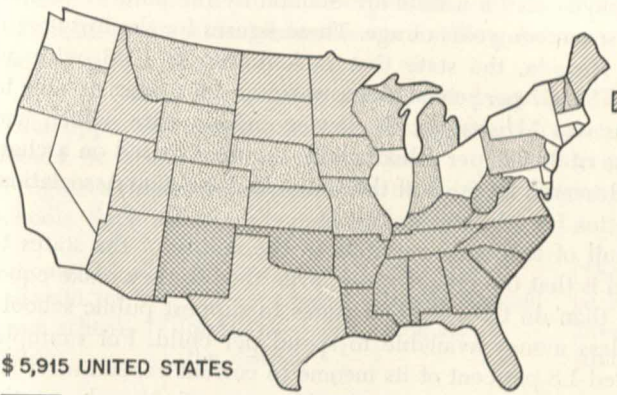
PLATE 10

ADEQUATELY FINANCED SCHOOLS CAN BETTER MEET THE NEEDS OF THEIR PUPILS. If schools are to offer a broad and diversified program of education, which includes vocational education as well as general education and special interest courses, they must receive adequate tax revenues from local, state, and federal sources. (Courtesy of the South Vocational High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania)

able for the education of every adolescent. This principle has guided the development of state plans for equalization of minimum financial support for each local district.

Inequalities within states. The gross variance within a state in the ability of local school districts to maintain a school has been repeatedly shown in numerous surveys of school finance. A survey in Nebraska in 1938, for example, showed that one high school district had an average of $53,290 worth of assessed property per pupil attending school, while another district in the same county had only $1,462 worth of property behind each pupil. In terms of local support through a property tax the

one district was thirty-six times as able to educate its children as was the other district. In fact, it actually spent $182.95 per pupil for its schools as contrasted with $45.31 spent by the poorer district. Among the independent school districts of Kentucky in 1938, the poorest district had only $114 assessed valuation per child, whereas the richest district had $11,830, and it was thus one hundred times as able to educate its children as was the poorest district. Studies in other states show similar alarming disparities in the ability of local districts to support schools.



$ 5,915 UNITED STATES

THIRD 12 STATES

$ 5,409	KANSAS
5,389	MINNESOTA
5,377	FLORIDA
5,036	VERMONT
4,859	MAINE
4,712	SOUTH DAKOTA
4,695	IDAHO
4,418	VIRGINIA
4,348	TEXAS
4,314	NORTH DAKOTA
4,283	UTAH
4,258	ARIZONA

HIGHEST 12 STATES

$ 9,957	NEVADA
9,749	NEW YORK
9,346	CALIFORNIA
9,231	NEW JERSEY
8,670	CONNECTICUT
8,277	ILLINOIS
7,913	DELAWARE
7,766	MASSACHUSETTS
7,751	RHODE ISLAND
7,252	MARYLAND
7,196	WASHINGTON
6,804	OHIO

SECOND 12 STATES

$ 6,609	OREGON
6,419	PENNSYLVANIA
5,873	MICHIGAN
5,834	INDIANA
5,813	MISSOURI
5,793	WISCONSIN
5,730	MONTANA
5,710	COLORADO
5,618	WYOMING
5,603	IOWA
5,563	NEW HAMPSHIRE
5,533	NEBRASKA

LOWEST 12 STATES

$ 3,475	TENNESSEE
3,465	OKLAHOMA
3,368	WEST VIRGINIA
3,350	LOUISIANA
3,176	NEW MEXICO
3,116	GEORGIA
3,106	NORTH CAROLINA
3,103	KENTUCKY
2,761	ALABAMA
2,701	ARKANSAS
2,621	SOUTH CAROLINA
2,080	MISSISSIPPI

FIG. 1. TOTAL INCOME PAYMENTS PER CHILD FROM FIVE TO SEVENTEEN YEARS OF AGE, 1946. (Courtesy of the National Education Association, *The Facts on Federal Aid for Schools*, Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1949)

A significant study of the level of school expenditures in the various states for 1946–1947 further illustrates the gross inequalities in educational opportunities that exist among the local districts within a state.[1] For example, in the state of Michigan 10 per cent of the pupils attended schools that spent less than $75 per pupil for their education; on the other hand, 10 per cent of the pubils of the state attended schools that cost as much as $175 per pupil. In the United States as a whole, 10 per cent of the children

[1] Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University. *Still Unfinished—Our Educational Obligation to America's Children* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948).

were in schools that cost $50 or less per pupil, while the most fortunate 10 per cent attended schools that cost $185 or more per pupil.

Inequalities among states. Not only is there great inequality among districts within a state, but the states themselves, taken as units, vary greatly in their ability to support schools, as well as other governmental services. The best single measure of this ability is considered to be the total income payments to individuals, as defined by the United States Department of Commerce. In measuring the ability to support schools, the total income payments for a state are divided by the number of children from five to seventeen years of age. These figures for the forty-eight states show that Nevada, the state that ranked first in 1946, with an average income of $9,957 per school child, was over four times as able to support schools as was Mississippi, the lowest-ranking state, which had an average income of $2,080 per school child. Figure 1, based on a chart prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association, presents the situation for all states in 1946.

The net result of this wide variation in the ability of the states to support education is that the poorer states, even though they make equal or greater efforts than do the wealthier states to support public schools, still have much less money available to spend per child. For example, Mississippi devoted 1.8 per cent of its income to current expenditures for schools in 1945–1946; yet it spent only $46.32 per pupil. Nevada, on the other hand, expended 1.5 per cent of its income for schools, but had $162.32 per child. The figures for the five lowest and five highest income states for 1945–1946 are shown here:

STATE	INCOME PER CHILD	PER CENT OF INCOME SPENT FOR SCHOOLS	AMOUNT SPENT PER CHILD ATTENDING
A. Five Lowest States			
Mississippi	$2,080	1.8	$46.32
South Carolina	2,621	2.2	74.30
Arkansas	2,701	1.8	64.76
Alabama	2,761	1.9	68.54
Kentucky	3,103	1.9	86.33
B. Five Highest States			
Connecticut	8,670	1.5	168.65
New Jersey	9,231	2.0	210.81
California	9,346	1.5	168.19
New York	9,749	1.7	208.70
Nevada	9,957	1.5	162.32

These facts comprise the basic argument for federal aid to public education. The welfare of the entire nation is affected by the quality of education in each of the states and in each of the local districts. Effective

democracy requires that each citizen be well educated and be capable of discharging his responsibilities as a citizen. Although it again should be pointed out that the worth-whileness of an educational program cannot accurately be judged solely on the basis of cost, it is apparent that an entire state system of schools that expends only $46.32 per child attending can hardly be as meritorious as a system that expends $210.81. The federal government, by taxing wealth wherever it exists in the country, can redistribute this money in terms of need, so that every child should be assured of at least a minimum expenditure for his schooling. On such an equalization plan most educators are willing to accept the principle of federal aid for education.

Basis for assuring a minimum program. To equalize educational opportunity on the state level, state funds for the support of schools should be distributed, in part at least, on the basis of a formula that recognizes the need and the ability of the local district to support its own schools. Such a formula would be as follows:

Amount of state aid for a given school district	=	Number of units of educational need in the district	×	Unit cost of the foundation program	−	The local contribution at a uniform rate in accordance with ability to pay

Educational need is measured in various ways in the states that equalize opportunity. One measure is simply the number of pupils attending schools. This measure does not, however, take adequate account of the variation in the size of schools. Experts feel that the most satisfactory measure is the classroom unit. Under such a plan, the number of classroom units is determined on the basis of the number of pupils in average daily attendance. The formula may be weighted so that the number of classroom units for high schools takes account of the additional expense entailed in providing secondary education. Roughly, the number of classroom units will approximate the number of teachers employed.

The equalization formula next requires that the amount of money which should be available in the school per classroom unit or per pupil be determined. This amount is usually specified by state law or by the state appropriation bill itself. If the classroom unit is used as a measure of need, the equalized cost may be set, for example, at $800 or $2,000, or some similar figure per unit. Often this figure is changed by the state legislature as economic conditions in general fluctuate. The figure determines what is to be set as the expenditure for the minimum or foundation program of education. It is the state's method of saying that every school child should have expended for his benefit the amount of money specified as the cost of the foundation program. The product of this sum and the number of units of need, such as classroom units, is the minimum amount of money

that, according to the state, the local district should spend during the current year for current expenses.

The equalization principle comes into play through the fact that the state pays from state funds only the amount necessary to make up the difference between the cost of the foundation program and the amount that the local district can reasonably be expected to raise. This ability of the local district is determined by applying a specified rate of taxation to the value of property within the district. Thus the state may set eight, ten, or fifteen mills as the tax rate on which equalization will be calculated. The amount of state aid due the district will be the difference between the cost of the foundation program and the amount that could be raised through this uniform tax levy on local property.

This statement expresses the basic principle of equalization. Actually, few states with equalization plans adhere to the ideal. Many deviations are made, and other factors are introduced into the scheme for distribution. Ideally, equalization at the federal level should follow the same basic principles, except that the state, rather than the local district, becomes the unit for determining need.

Regardless of the method used, some type of equalization at both the state and federal level is essential if we are to provide adequate educational opportunities for all the boys and girls. Moreover, in a democracy we should not be satisfied with less than a sound program of education available to all the children of all the people.

THE SCHOOL FINANCE STRUCTURE SHOULD PROVIDE LEEWAY FOR ADAPTABILITY ON THE PART OF THE LOCAL SCHOOL

Local schools need the capacity for adapting their programs to local conditions and demands and to changing situations that arise with new conditions. This capacity is known as adaptability. The plan for financing schools should provide for this adaptability. Essentially, such a plan would mean that each local district have enough leeway in raising revenues locally to enable it to go beyond the minimum foundation program without unduly burdening the local taxpayers. In practice, this is achieved by setting the rate for the local tax levy for equalization purposes under the foundation program low enough to permit additional local taxes to be levied without becoming oppressive. The over-all limit on tax rates that the state imposes on the district must, in turn, be enough higher than the required levy for supporting the minimum foundation program to provide this leeway. For example, if the state-aid equalization plan requires the local district to levy 15 mills as its share of school support and then places a statutory limit of 18 mills on local levies, insufficient margin may be allowed the local district to secure money for going beyond the minimum program or for adapting the program to local needs and conditions.

The lack of adaptability in states without equalization plans may be even more pronounced; for under the gross inequalities in ability that exist among districts in many states, the poorest districts must of necessity levy excessive taxes in order to provide even the bare essentials of an educational program. Such schools employ the poorest teachers and offer the most meager curriculums; yet the tax load on the citizens of the district greatly exceeds that in the wealthier districts. Such poorly financed schools have little margin for adaptability. Accident of birth in such poor districts should not operate to deny American boys and girls an education adequate for effective citizenship.

THE SCHOOL FINANCIAL STRUCTURE SHOULD ENCOURAGE PRUDENTIAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOLS

Our methods of financing schools should encourage—yes, require—economical use of tax money. Economy does not mean parsimonious support of schools; rather, adequate returns for the money spent. It is not niggardly expenditures that we want, but wise use of the money that is available.

At the local level, this prudential principle means that the money available should be expended for educational services and programs that will contribute maximally to the desirable development of boys and girls. Almost any type of experience that the school may provide will be of some educational value to pupils, but we as educators should strive to provide experiences that will make a maximum contribution to the mental, social, emotional, or physical growth of every pupil. The study of Latin, for example, may be of value to a few select students, but if its inclusion in the program of studies precludes offering all the pupils a course in healthful living, prudence would dictate the choice of the latter.

At the state level, prudence would require that the state eliminate small inefficient districts that exist from horse-and-buggy days. It would indicate that plans for school buildings should be passed on by competent authorities on schoolhouse planning; that proved incompetent teachers should be denied licenses for teaching; and many similar requirements that the state could set that would insure sound returns on the expenditure of public funds.

THE SCHOOL FINANCE STRUCTURE SHOULD ASSURE LOCAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

In the complexity of federal, state, and local financial support of government, including schools, nothing should be permitted to abrogate the right of the citizens of the local community to control the schools. The principle of local control of education is thoroughly engrained in our democratic philosophy, and its validity has been proved through long years of experience. In fact, nothing set forth in the fore-

going criteria compromises this principle. There is nothing in the principles of state support and equalization, in prudential administration, and in adaptability that reduces local responsibility for the program of education. The local district would still determine the nature and character of the educational experience that it provides.

Even when federal aid is granted, the local district should control the schools, although many citizens have maintained that some measure of control is inherent in federal aid. It is true that in the history of federal subsidization of state and local governmental activities, such as road building and welfare work, some federal control has accompanied the acceptance of aid, and it is true that some federal control now exists in the special aids granted for vocational education. Nevertheless, proponents of federal aid maintain that such control is not inherent in the act of merely granting aid; they firmly believe that if federal aid to schools is granted on an equalization basis, according to a predetermined formula federal control is neither essential nor necessary. The federal government is simply an agency of the people, and it is subject to the will of the people. If the citizens throughout the nation demand federal aid without control, certainly they have the means of securing it. If federal control is maintained, it will be only with the consent of the people through their elected representatives.

A Desirable School Finance Plan

We may summarize our discussion of school finance by suggesting the elements in a sound state plan for supporting public elementary and secondary education.[2]

1. Local Revenues—from 40 to 60 per cent. Local revenues should be raised by a local tax on real property within the district. Property should be assessed fairly and uniformly throughout the state. So that the district may offer the kind of educational program desired by the community, the state should give it ample tax leeway to raise additional funds beyond those required as its share of the foundation program.

2. State Support—from 30 to 50 per cent. State revenues should be raised by a diversified tax plan, including income taxes, business taxes, and excise taxes. The state appropriations must be at least large enough to meet the state's share of the cost of the foundation program, and the minimum amount set as the cost of the foundation program should be sufficiently high to assure an adequate educational program without additional expenditures. If the state wishes to allocate additional sums to the schools, they may be distributed as general aid to relieve local property tax, and a small amount may be used as special aid to stimulate the de-

[2] The reader may also wish to study the seventy-seven school finance goals defined by the National Education Association in *School Finance Goals* (Research Bulletin, Vol. 24, No. 3; Washington, D. C.; The Association, October, 1946).

velopment of certain aspects of the educational program. State appropriations should be made from general state funds, not from allocation of earmarked revenues.

3. Federal Aid—10 per cent. The federal government should appropriate from general funds $300,000,000 to $500,000,000 annually for the support of elementary and secondary schools. Most of this money should

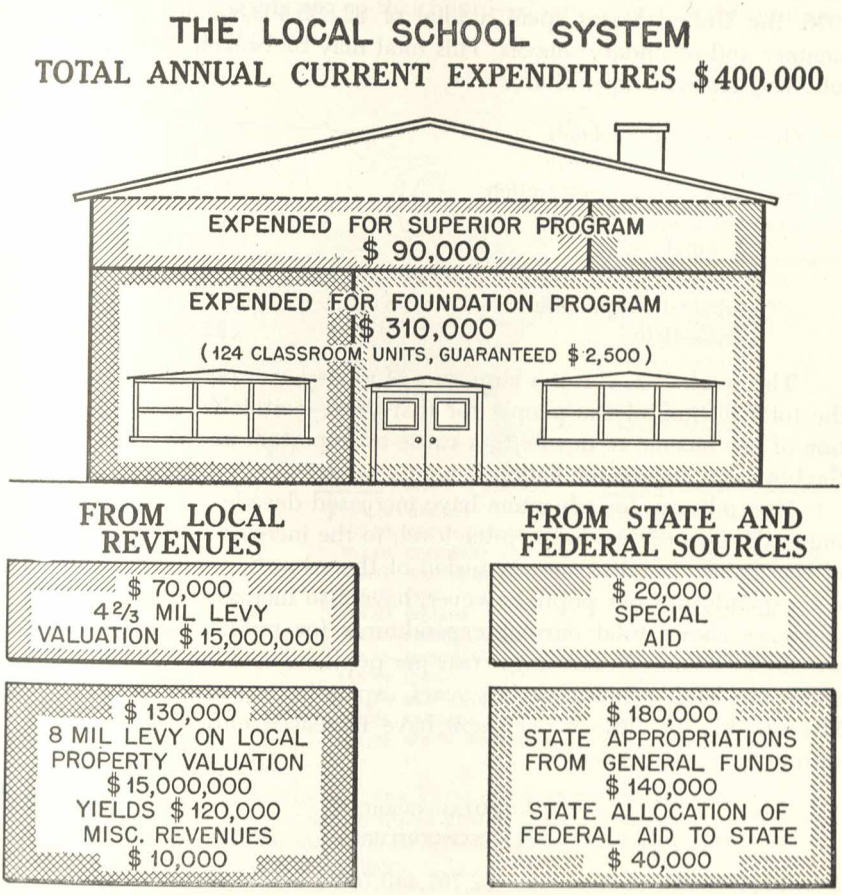


FIG. 2. FUNCTIONING OF A GOOD SCHOOL FINANCE PLAN

be distributed to the states as equalization aid, based on an objective formula that prevents the use of any discretionary powers by the federal agency. A small portion may be used for special aid to stimulate educational undertakings, but only after desirable minimum standards have been assured in all the states. All federal aid should be paid to the state in a lump sum and be reallocated by the state to local districts on an equalization plan. Figure 2 illustrates graphically how a sound school finance

plan would operate in a local school district of about average wealth per child.

Expenditures for Education

Now that we have discussed the financing of public schools, let us consider the amount of expenditures for public education. In 1945–1946, the United States spent a total of $2,895,409,806 for public elementary and secondary schools. This total may be broken down into the following types of expenditures:

Operation of the schools (current expenses)	$2,707,440,760
Interest and bond redemption	76,922,958
Permanent improvements (capital outlay)	111,046,098
Total school expenditures 1945–1946	$2,895,409,806

This total, even if it is a large sum of money, was only 1.7 per cent of the total income of the people for that year—certainly a small proportion of our income to devote to a cause as important as the education of the boys and girls of the nation.

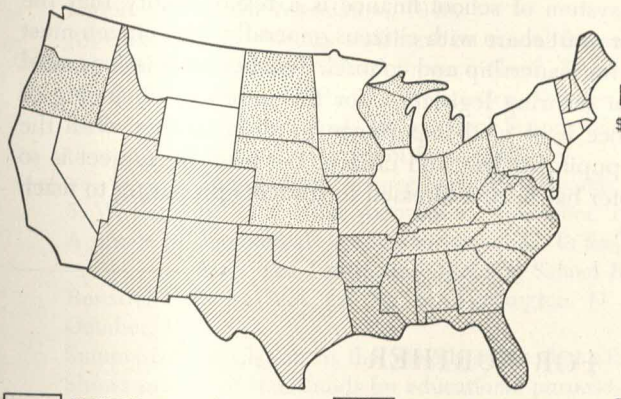
Expenditures for education have increased decade after decade, owing to the general rise in the price level; to the increase in the population of the country; and to the expansion of the educational program. Average expenditures per pupil, however, have also increased. The following summary shows total current expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools and average costs per pupil for each decade since 1900 and up to 1946. Within forty-six years, expenditures increased more than fifteenfold; expenditures per pupil have increased only about eightfold during the same period.

YEAR	TOTAL CURRENT EXPENDITURES	CURRENT EXPENSE PER PUPIL
1945–1946	$2,707,440,760	$136.41
1939–1940	1,941,799,228	88.09
1929–1930	1,843,551,708	86.70
1919–1920	864,396,526	53.52
1909–1910	356,272,064*	27.77*
1899–1900	179,513,798*	16.88*

* Includes interest.

Expenditures per pupil increased 40 per cent during the period from 1940 to 1946. A great deal of the increase was due to general price inflation as an aftermath of World War II. However, it is doubtful if ex-

penditures per pupil will ever drop in the years ahead in the same ratio as the price level, since parents are demanding an improved program of education for their children. They want better qualified teachers, smaller classes, extended health services, summer recreational programs, and other essentials in a good program of education. Certainly, as a nation we can well afford to spend a larger percentage of our national income for the support of public schools, so that improved educational opportunities for boys and girls will result.



THIRD 12 STATES

$ 137.36	MISSOURI
136.93	ARIZONA
136.12	COLORADO
135.02	NEW HAMPSHIRE
134.60	NEW MEXICO
128.61	UTAH
126.00	MARYLAND
121.89	VERMONT
118.11	TEXAS
116.55	IDAHO
111.86	OKLAHOMA
109.38	MAINE

HIGHEST 12 STATES

$ 215.44	MONTANA
210.81	NEW JERSEY
208.70	NEW YORK
183.33	WASHINGTON
179.71	MASSACHUSETTS
171.38	WYOMING
168.65	CONNECTICUT
168.19	CALIFORNIA
162.32	NEVADA
161.48	ILLINOIS
160.85	RHODE ISLAND
155.19	MINNESOTA

SECOND 12 STATES

$ 154.74	OREGON
153.93	SOUTH DAKOTA
152.01	DELAWARE
146.72	WISCONSIN
146.62	OHIO
144.54	INDIANA
144.38	PENNSYLVANIA
144.13	MICHIGAN
143.89	IOWA
141.38	NEBRASKA
141.25	KANSAS
138.02	NORTH DAKOTA

LOWEST 12 STATES

$ 103.31	FLORIDA
101.36	LOUISIANA
100.32	WEST VIRGINIA
92.29	VIRGINIA
86.33	KENTUCKY
81.16	NORTH CAROLINA
76.10	TENNESSEE
74.30	SOUTH CAROLINA
68.54	ALABAMA
64.76	ARKANSAS
63.96	GEORGIA
46.32	MISSISSIPPI

FIG. 3. ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATION PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE, 1945–1946. An average of these figures would give $135.15. (Courtesy of the United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems*, 1945–1946, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1949)

EXPENDITURES BY STATES

The forty-eight states show a marked variation in the amounts they spend for education, both as to total expenditures and expenditures per pupil. The amount expended per pupil in 1945–1946 varied from $215.44 in Montana to $46.32 in Mississippi—a ratio of over four to one. Figure 3 shows the amount per pupil spent in 1945–1946 in each state; it groups the states into four classes of twelve states each.

All figures presented here for expenditures are for both elementary

and secondary schools. It is impossible to segregate expenditures for the two types of schools, because the figures are not reported on a segregated basis to the United States Office of Education.

Yes, public education is big business in the United States, but certainly it constitutes one of the most essential and important enterprises of the American people.

This chapter has been designed to give all those who are professional educators some insight into the methods of financing schools. The development of a sound system of school finance is a responsibility that the professional educator must share with citizens generally. The citizen must look to the educator for leadership and counsel. Teacher associations need to take leadership in securing legislation for the improved financing of schools. School finance is of vital importance to all concerned with the schools—to patron, pupil, teacher, and citizen. Because the subject is so important, this chapter has been addressed to students preparing to teach in secondary schools.

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VIII ORGANIZING FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

If a community is going to educate its children, it obviously must establish and organize a system of schools. An early colonial practice of having children report to the home of a teacher where instruction was carried on individually simply would not be feasible today. Consequently we as a nation have developed plans for providing instruction systematically to large numbers of pupils. The plan by which we do this is called the organization of the school. Our arrangement of school grades, the division of these grades into schools of various levels, such as elementary and secondary, and the division of responsibilities among various types of specialized schools are all aspects of school organization. In this chapter we shall survey briefly some of the types of school organization and the problems involved in organizing schools.

Vertical Organization for Secondary Education

The system of education in the United States today is essentially a unitary system comprising a continuous program from the nursery school through the graduate college of the university. Pupils completing one school level may normally move onto the next as a matter of course and without interruption, provided that they complete satisfactorily the work of the lower level. True, the college or university does set entrance requirements for admission, but these are in terms of specified units of work or specific individual abilities that the pupils must possess; they do not operate to exclude from college, in groups, pupils who have attended certain types of secondary schools.

The contrast to this ladder system of educational organization is the plan found in most foreign countries, in which the program of education becomes sharply differentiated in the upper elementary or secondary level. Only a small percentage of the pupils enter the academic secondary school and continue on into college or professional school. The others either drop out at the end of the elementary school or go for a few more years to a vocational or part-time continuation school. Obviously, the two latter groups of pupils are not eligible to enter college, because they did not attend the proper type of preparatory school. Selection for the academic secondary schools may be on the basis of examinations and other qualifications, but in many countries the ability of the parents to

pay the costs of attending the secondary school is also a factor in determining attendance.

In recent decades the American secondary school has become more differentiated, as has higher education; so that the picture of our educational system as a single-ladder plan is hardly applicable any longer. Rather, our secondary school is more like a series of stairways from one floor to the next, with occasionally one of these being dead end. We have specialized high schools, vocational high schools, technical institutes, and other deviations that break the single unitary concept of our school system. Yet essentially, with only minor exceptions, pupils are not barred from entering higher-level institutions because of the type of school previously attended.

PLANS FOR VERTICAL ORGANIZATION

This American system of education provides for twenty or more years of schooling. It starts, when the child is four years old, with the nursery school, just now becoming an accepted part of our educational program in a few of the more progressive systems; then comes the kindergarten, which is now found in most school systems; then the elementary schools; then the secondary school; then the college; and, last, the professional and graduate college. The plan for assigning the various grades or years to each of these schools constitutes the vertical organization of education.

A number of plans have been used during the evolution of American education, and a wide variety of plans still exists today. Figure 4 illustrates some of the most common plans now in use among public school systems for grade organization in the common school system. No attempt is made in the chart to depict all types of organization for higher learning at the college level, because that is not the function of this chapter.

There are a number of variants of these basic plans. For example, a nursery school could well be organized under any of the plans, and a junior college comprising grades thirteen and fourteen could be organized by the public school system as a part of any of the plans that end the high school with grade twelve. Whether such a school would be secondary or higher in nature would depend on the junior college program, not on the method of organization.

The division between elementary and secondary education is usually made at the end of the sixth or eighth grade, as shown in the chart, but in some schools it comes at the end of the seventh grade or even at end of the fifth. Thus the junior high school may comprise only the eighth and ninth grades; only the seventh and eighth grades; or the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, rather than the usual seventh, eighth, and ninth grades; and the senior high school would be adjusted accordingly. Such plans would then be K 7–2–3; K 6–2–4; and K 5–3–4. The kindergarten is not found

in all school systems even today; so its elimination constitutes another possible modification. However, the plans depicted in Figure 4 are those most commonly found in practice or advocated as being the best for school organization.

Up until recent years a few states and a few systems in other states included only eleven grades in the elementary and secondary school organization. However, since most systems are now twelve-year programs, exclusive of kindergarten, nursery, and junior college years, these earlier plans for an eleven-year program will be disregarded in this discussion.

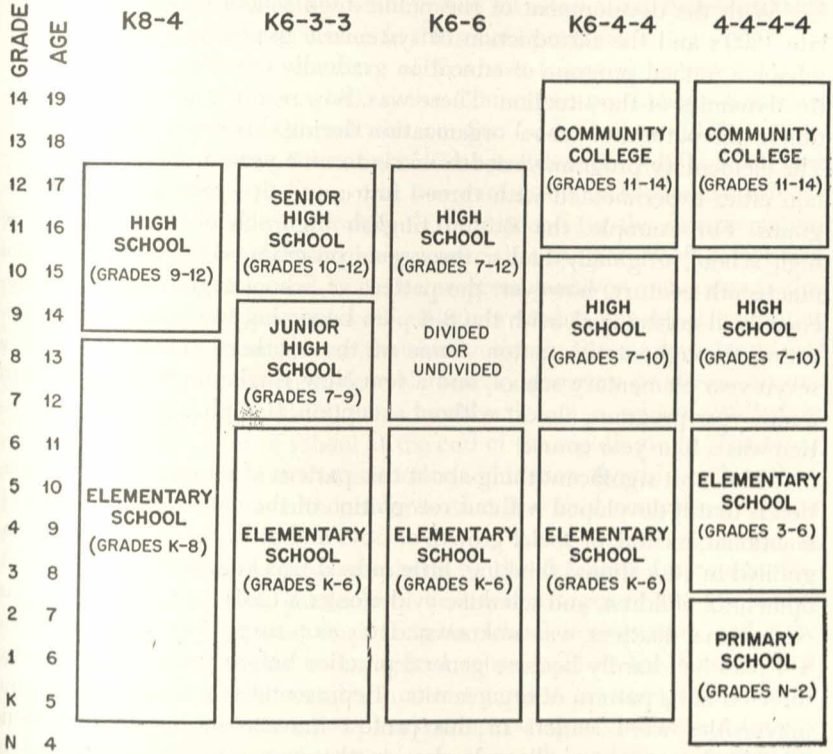

FIG. 4. PLANS FOR VERTICAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The problem of school organization is further complicated when the high school district is a separate and distinct unit from the elementary school district. The distribution of grades to the respective levels in such instances must frequently be made by statutory law rather than on the basis of principle or good administration.

DEMAND FOR REVISION OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The plan for school organization that gradually evolved in America was the 8–4 plan—an elementary school comprising grades one to

eight, inclusive, and a high school comprising grades nine to twelve. Except for the addition of the kindergarten, this is still the dominant pattern of school organization in the United States. This plan did not develop, however, until the last half of the nineteenth century. The early American elementary and secondary schools were distinct entities, not aspects of a single articulated system of education. The early Latin grammar schools and the academies remained independent of the elementary schools of the day both in control and organization. Admission was not based on promotion from an elementary school.

With the development of the public high school in the middle and late 1800's and the introduction of systematic grades in the elementary school, a unified program of education gradually developed as a result of the dynamics of the situation. There was, however, a great deal of variation in the pattern of school organization during this evolutionary period. The elementary program varied from six to nine years in length; and certain cities experimented with three-, four-, and five-year secondary programs. For example, the Boston English high school, the first public high school, originally had a three-year program. By the close of the nineteenth century, however, the pattern of school organization had become well crystallized, with the 8–4 plan becoming the dominant organization throughout the nation. Some of the southern states had only a seven-year elementary school, and a few New England communities had a nine-year program; almost without exception, though, secondary education was a four-year course.

The most significant thing about this pattern of educational organization is that it developed without recognition of the nature of the physical, emotional, mental, or social growth of boys and girls. When it became engrained in educational thinking, little indeed was known about the development of children, and scientific evidence as a basis for policy making in educational matters was unknown. It is not surprising, then, that the 8–4 plan had hardly become general practice before severe criticism was directed at its pattern of organization. Representatives of the colleges and universities were leaders in this protest movement, but many public school educators as well as leaders in the new scientific movement in education early joined in these efforts to improve school organization. Out of this dissatisfaction grew the movement for the reorganization of upper elementary and secondary education, which waxed particularly strong from 1890 to 1920.

The movement for changing the traditional pattern of school organization got its initial impetus from major addresses given at professional educational conventions and from the work of a number of important educational committees that issued pronouncements on educational problems during this period. President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University, in an address to the National Education Association in 1888, proposed that

the period of elementary education be shortened and that of secondary education be lengthened by the adoption of various reforms that he delineated.

President Eliot gave more specific suggestions for reform in two speeches in 1892. His discussions raised questions about the proper functions and purposes of elementary, secondary, and higher education. The speeches led to the appointment of the famous Committee of Ten on Secondary-School Studies in 1892. This Committee recommended that some of the subjects then offered in high school be introduced into the upper years of the elementary school or, as an alternative, that secondary education begin two years earlier in the school program.

The report of the Committee of Ten was followed by reports from the Committee of Fifteen (1895), the Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1899), Committees on Six-Year Courses (1907, 1908, 1909), the Committee on Economy of Time in Education (1909, 1911, and 1913), and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1918). All added their voices to the demand for the reorganization of education. In general, their charges were that the period of elementary education was too long and that the program involved unnecessary duplication; that pupils were not well enough grounded in subjects taught at the high school level and hence that instruction in these areas should begin earlier; and that an eight-year elementary program produced an unnatural division and break in the educational course, which resulted in excessive dropping out of school at the end of the eighth grade. The tenor of all of these reports was that secondary education should begin earlier, specifically, with the seventh grade, so that it would comprise six years rather than four.

Three other factors gave emphasis to the demands for reorganization. Leading educators, particularly President Harper of the University of Chicago, were agitating for reform in school organization and were undertaking modifications in individual schools. Then the Kansas City, Missouri, schools added weight to the argument for reorganization by showing how successfully a 7–4 plan was operating in that city. A further factor in prompting reorganization was research evidence obtained by Thorndike (1907), Ayres (1909), and Strayer (1911) that showed the heavy withdrawal of pupils prior to high school. The cumulative effect of all of this agitation for reform was, of course, that schools were in due time reorganized.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

When reorganization came, however, it took the form of a divided secondary educational program—a junior high school, comprising grades seven, eight, and nine, and a senior high school, comprising grades ten, eleven, and twelve—rather than the form of a unified six-year sec-

ondary school that many of the earlier Committee reports had advocated or at least sanctioned. This segregation into two secondary schools resulted from the establishment by both Berkeley, California, and Columbus, Ohio, in 1909–1910; of a separate "introductory high school" or intermediate school that included grades seven, eight, and nine.

Not only did such a fortuitous development satisfy the demands for downward extension of secondary education to include grades seven and eight, but it was a happy solution to school building problems arising in many cities during this period. At any rate, this plan for a junior high school, as it came to be called, spread like wildfire, and within a decade a large number of school systems had adopted some type of reorganized school. The period of most rapid growth, however, was from 1920 to 1930, the period that corresponds with the influx of great hordes of pupils into the secondary school. Many a school superintendent and board of education found it much more expedient and practical to build new junior high schools scattered throughout a city than to build both additional elementary and additional high school buildings. In small towns a crowded high school building could be converted handily into a junior high school building, and a new modern senior school be built. The fact that educational theory justified the establishment of a junior high school as a separate school was, of course, a fortunate combination of practical circumstances and philosophy.

THE SIX-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

The second main type of reorganized school is the six-year secondary school. Again, elementary education ends with grade six. The secondary school may be organized as an undivided six-year school of grades seven to twelve, inclusive, or as a joint junior-senior high school. Under the former plan, no break or distinction is made during the six years. In the joint junior-senior high school there is a clear-cut break, either between the eighth and ninth grades or the ninth and tenth grades. Thus it may be a joint 2–4 or a 3–3 plan. The two subunits are usually housed in the same building, administered by the same principal, and share teaching staff and facilities. The six-year secondary school is found more frequently in the small school systems where a combined school makes for a better program and for greater economy and efficiency than would separate junior and senior high schools.

THE EIGHT-YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAM

The newest development in school reorganization is that of an eight-year program of secondary education. It, too, begins with the seventh grade but extends through the fourteenth year of schooling, or what has been the junior college or lower division program of the university. Under the eight-year program, it is generally recommended that

secondary education be divided into two units of four years each—a school that comprises grades seven to ten, inclusive, and a school that comprises grades eleven to fourteen, inclusive. However, in the exigencies of the situation, it may be necessary to organize the secondary program under a 3–3–2 plan.

Names for these units have not become standardized, but community college is the one being most commonly applied to the upper unit, especially under the 3–3–2 organization, and the terms "junior high school" and "senior high school" are, of course, applicable. Most every one wants to drop the connotation "junior college" for the upper unit in an eight-year program, since traditionally it signifies a program of higher education, oriented to later professional education rather than to secondary education.

Although the junior college is widely accepted in American education, the genuinely secondary institution, the community college, is still largely a concept of educators awaiting implementation. However, practically all the authorities who have seriously weighed the problems of educational improvement strongly advocate this extension of secondary education to include grades thirteen and fourteen. In recent years numerous surveys of education at both the local and the state level have recommended such a program for the consideration of the public and of school administrative authorities. In addition, two significant pronouncements have blueprinted plans for the extension of secondary education to the fourteenth year. [1]

Only a few school systems have been organized on the basis of an eight-year program of secondary education. While there are 323 public junior colleges, according to 1947 statistics, a large number are not even subdivisions of the local program of common school education but are independent both in control and operation of a local school system; even those that have been established by a local board of education as a part of the district's educational organization are in practice considered to be institutions of higher learning—not secondary schools. Therefore the eight-year program of secondary education is still largely on the drawing boards, so to speak, with only a few experimental models being tested in practice. Unmistakably, though, the next step in school reorganization is the upward extension of secondary education to include the thirteenth and fourteenth grades.

An even more forward-looking proposal is to organize the school system into four equal units of four years each—a primary school that includes the nursery, kindergarten, and grades one and two; an inter-

[1] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944); President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), 6 vols.

mediate school comprising grades three to six; a high school comprising grades seven to ten; and a community college comprising grades eleven to fourteen. Few experimental models of this design have been developed.

EXTENT OF REORGANIZATION

It is difficult to get an accurate notion of the extent of reorganization of secondary education in the United States. In the first place, the definition of a reorganized school is not clear-cut and definite. Some administrators, for example, consider a departmentalized type of instruction in the seventh and eighth grades a reorganized school; others do not. Secondly, statistics on reorganized schools are not collected by all the states. Thirdly, reports that are available show the number of individual schools that have adopted a plan of reorganization, not the number of school systems. In spite of these shortcomings, however, the figures on the number of secondary schools of various types for 1945–1946 are presented here for whatever value they may have in giving a general impression of the extent of reorganization.

TYPE OF SCHOOL	NUMBER IN 1945–1946
Junior High Schools	2,654
Senior High Schools	1,317
Junior-Senior High Schools	6,366
Regular High Schools	13,844
Ungraded	133
	24,314

SOURCE: U. S. Office of Education, *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946* (advance data supplied by Research and Statistical Service, February 24, 1949).

Arguments for Reorganized Secondary Schools

The desirability of modifying the traditional 8–4 pattern of vertical organization of the school system has been widely accepted in American educational practice. Although many school systems, particularly those in small towns and rural areas on the one hand, and those in the large cities, on the other, have not actually adopted a reorganized plan, their practices and programs in the upper elementary grades have unquestionably been influenced by the movement. Some are evolving a reorganized plan as the development of plant facilities permits. There is no move on the part of systems operating under reorganized plans to return to the traditional scheme.

The reasons for changing our traditional 8–4 plan of organization so that secondary education is extended downward to include the seventh and eighth grades will be considered briefly here.

JUSTIFICATION FOR EXTENSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION DOWNWARD TO INCLUDE GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT

All plans for reorganization of our school system call for the completion of elementary education at the end of the sixth grade. The justification for this policy follows these main arguments:

It provides a better psychological and physiological division point. For the great majority of the pupils pubescence, which marks the onset of adolescence, occurs near or during enrollment in the seventh grade. The most normal psychological and physiological grouping, therefore, is to place these pupils with other adolescents rather than to retain them in an elementary school with preadolescents. Emotional, social, and educational adjustments may be more readily made when groups are more nearly comparable in stages of personal growth and development than when they are widely divergent, and educational planning would obviously be facilitated. The typical seventh-grader is much more like a ninth-grader than a sixth-grader; and certainly more like an eighth-grader than a sixth-grader.

It facilitates development of a broader educational program. Young adolescents enrolled in the seventh and eighth grades needs a broader and richer type of education than is ordinarily offered in the traditional elementary school. The objectives usually set for the elementary school can be rather well achieved by the end of the sixth grade. If pupils are forced to continue in the same pattern, studying much the same subject matter they studied in the lower grades, not only do they lose interest and enthusiasm, with possible detrimental effects on discipline and behavior, but the school is failing to provide them with vital, rich, and maximally stimulating educational experiences. The young adolescent needs new types of experiences and new opportunities not usually associated with elementary schools. Opportunities in homemaking, music, handicraft, shop work, art, physical education, science, and the like are more conveniently and economically offered as parts of a secondary program than as parts of an elementary program.

Opportunities for extraclassroom activities are also much more commonly associated with secondary than with elementary schools. It should of course be observed that the program for seventh- and eighth-grade pupils may also be broadened and enriched in an elementary school, perhaps as extensively as in a junior high school. In actual practice, however, it seldom is, and in any event, provision of such a broad program would prove to be excessive in cost, because, compared to the size of many junior high schools, the seventh and eighth grades of an elementary school comprise a small group. A city can better afford to provide these expanded programs and services in three or four junior high schools serving the entire city than in twenty or thirty elementary schools.

It provides better opportunities for desirable pupil growth. The inclusion of the seventh and eighth grades in the secondary school enables the school to provide better and fuller opportunities for (a) the development of pupil initiative, responsibility, self-assurance, and self-discipline; and (b) the exploration of pupil interests. Pupils in the seventh and eighth grades of a reorganized secondary school have more freedom, by and large, than they have in an elementary school. In general, the program is more flexible, the daily schedule encourages broadened choice of activities in the classwork, the discipline is less rigid, and pupils are more on their own. The situation is more conducive to the development of group morale and solidarity than when these young adolescents comprise a small part of an elementary school. Moreover, the broadened curriculum described earlier permits choices in terms of individual interests. At an earlier age pupils may explore fields of study in secondary education and by gaining some understanding of them, be better able to choose courses of specialization later in the upper secondary grades.

It extends the period of secondary education. That ending the elementary school at grade six extends the period of secondary education is implied in the foregoing statements, but the argument is singled out here for emphasis. The traditional 8–4 plan extends the period of elementary education too long, and curtails secondary education too much. Division at the end of the sixth grade is more logical in terms of educational goals and objectives.

It makes for more economical administration of the schools. If an adequate program of education is to be offered pupils in the seventh and eighth grades, it can be done more economically, other things being equal, in reorganized schools. This argument of economy, however, is so interwoven with other factors that it is hard to prove in dollars and cents. For example, few systems in which the seventh and eighth grades are part of the elementary school actually offer as rich and as significant a program as do systems in which these grades are part of the junior high school. Hence the junior high school plan may prove as expensive or even more expensive in actual cash outlays, but when the scope of the program is considered, it is obviously an economical expenditure of public funds.

In actual practice, however, economy is affected so heavily by the problem of building and facilities that the cost of the educational program becomes only one factor in outlays for education. In fact, many cities have adopted a reorganized plan primarily as an answer to some local school building problem rather than for philosophical reasons. On the other hand, a number of large cities that had built an adequate plant on the basis of a four-year high school plan were unable or unwilling to finance a new building program for a system of junior high schools. Also, since schools don't all wear out at the same time, the situation seldom becomes

expeditious for reorganization. The tremedous influx of pupils into the elementary schools in the years immediately ahead may again create a favorable condition for pushing the seventh and eighth grades out of the elementary school and into a junior high school.

It provides for improved elementary schools. Removal of the seventh and eighth grades from the elementary school creates a more desirable situation for the elementary school. The pupils are more homogeneous in social and emotional development; curriculum problems are not as varied and as complex; and pupil control and management can be more uniform. Pupils in the fifth and sixth grades have richer opportunities for exercise of leadership, initiative, and responsibility when the elementary school ends with the sixth grade.

WHICH TYPE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL?

In reorganizing the school system, should secondary education be organized as separate junior and senior high schools, a continuous six-year school, two four-year schools, or should there be some other type of organization? In practice, this question is frequently decided on the basis of expediency, on the size of the resulting units, or on the building situation, but philosophical reasons should also be considered.

The six-year undivided secondary school is obviously more appropriate for a small school system than is a 6–3–3 plan, because of the factor of cost. It would be excessively expensive to maintain duplicate facilities, such as shops, homemaking rooms, music and art rooms, gymnasiums, health centers, and duplicate services, such as guidance, health, audio-visual aids, and the like, for two secondary schools—a junior and a senior high school—when both are small. A six-year secondary school housed in one building eliminates such needless duplication. Moreover, the undivided six-year school facilitates better articulation in the program of secondary education and better continuity in practice and activities. One marked advantage, in the opinion of many secondary educators, is that it eliminates a break between grades nine and ten, such as occurs in the case of separate junior and senior high schools. It should be noted that some of the larger school systems have found it desirable for one reason or another to develop at least a few six-year high schools; thus they are not entirely a development of the small school system.

One of the chief objections to the six-year high school is the likelihood that the younger pupils will be overwhelmed by those in the upper secondary grades. These seventh, eighth, and ninth grade students are likely to be crowded out of activities, to have their opportunities for exercise of leadership and responsibility curtailed; and in general to be pushed aside by older and more sophisticated pupils.

This, then, becomes an important argument for separate junior and

senior high schools. In a separate junior high school these young adolescents are more homogeneous in age, interest, development, and the like. They are not as likely to be overshadowed by more mature students. They soon are able to assume roles of leadership, to take over responsibilities in activities, and in other ways to express self-assertiveness. Morale and school spirit among these younger pupils should be at a higher level in the separate junior high school.

Another advantage is the fact that the teaching staff may specialize in the problems of young adolescents and become experts in the junior high school field. A separate junior high school provides opportunity for a more flexible program. It is not dominated by the time schedule and the other demands of accreditation that apply to the senior high school. If it will capitalize on its opportunities, the junior high school may develop a unique program designed to meet the needs of youngsters, rather than ape the traditional senior high school with its college preparatory pattern, its rigid schedules, and all the other routine that has characterized much of our secondary education.

In fact, the development of such rich programs of learning does characterize the work of the outstanding junior high schools of this nation. Some of the finest education being carried on in America is in our progressive, forward-looking junior high schools. To provide rich learning experiences is the opportunity and challenge of a separate junior high school. True, many of them have failed to live up to their possibilities, but progress is being made and the promise for the future is great.

As we extend secondary education in this nation to include the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling, the organization of two four-year secondary schools seems desirable. The lower school, probably called the high school, would include grades seven to ten inclusive; the upper school, probably called a community college, would include grades eleven to fourteen. Such an organization would be preferable to K 6–3–3–2 plan, because it would reduce the number of breaks in the program, provide for better continuity in the secondary program, and encourage pupils to remain until the completion of the fourteenth grade. Education at the thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade level is essentially secondary in scope and function; therefore it should be made an integral part of a continuous program of school. A separate institution tends to become an institution of higher education, aping four-year colleges rather than carrying on the functions of a true community agency for extended education.

While building facilities and other administrative factors will be major considerations in determining the kind of school organization that a city adopts, educational considerations favor the K 6–6 plan for the smaller communities, the K 6–3–3 plan for the larger systems, and a K 6–4–4 or 4–4–4–4 plan for cities able to offer an extended program.

Types of Secondary Schools

Most of us are familiar with one kind of high school—the general high school that is designed to serve as best it can the needs of all the young persons of the community. In fact, this is the kind of high school that we find throughout the United States. However, because of the great diversity in interests and plans for the future of high school pupils, certain large city school systems have found it desirable to establish specialized high schools that are designed to serve specific needs of large groups of youngsters. Occasionally these schools are established by the state itself or by a regional or union district of some type. The provision of several types of secondary schools is usually referred to as horizontal organization, since it is concerned with the arrangement of the different divisions of the program at the same level of schooling.

The most common types of secondary schools are

- General
  - Limited
  - Comprehensive
- Specialized
  - Academic
  - Agricultural
  - Commercial
  - Technical
  - Trade
- Part-time
  - Continuation
  - Evening

THE GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL

The general high school is, of course, the predominant type of secondary school in America. Its program is planned to serve the common needs of all young persons, and within the limits of its ability, as many of the specialized interests of its student body as possible. The extent to which it is able to do these things depends largely on its size, the financial resources of the district, and the willingness of the public to support a diversified program. In the small high schools, obviously, only a limited, narrow program of general education is offered. This program is one that is judged by school officials, board members, and patrons generally to be of most value to all pupils. Little opportunity is available for young persons to develop special interests or to elect a program of studies that prepares for any specialized work after graduation except college studies, because the first concern of most high schools is to provide subjects that will qualify their pupils for admission to college. We may call this a limited general high school.

As the high school increases in size, a broader program is offered.

PLATE 11

A COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL OFFERS COURSES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. This comprehensive high school offers courses in retail selling and other vocational fields, as well as in general education and in fields of special interest. (Courtesy of the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, Public Schools)

Usually additions to the program consist of introductory courses in selected vocational areas such as commerce, trade, or agriculture, and additional specialized academic subjects. An example of such a vocational program in a comprehensive high school is shown in Plate 11 on this page.

The large city high school represents the most comprehensive of the

general high schools. As many as two hundred separate subjects may be offered in a large school. These subjects are grouped in departments of instruction, such as English, social science, auto mechanics, industrial arts, commercial, and the like. Pupils elect a "curriculum" or course of study according to their interests; titles of such "curricula" include college preparatory, general, commercial, agriculture, trade, distributive education, fine arts, and similar courses. A curriculum designates the subjects required for graduation in its area of specialization and suggests courses from which electives are to be selected.

The comprehensiveness of the high school depends on the breadth of its program. It may offer subjects that vary in kind from the most academic and traditional, such as Greek or ancient history, to introductory courses in trade training, such as forge work or electricity. Thus we see that the true comprehensive high school tries to meet the needs of all students for general education or "common learnings," as well as the specialized needs of groups of students for vocational preparation, college preparation, or personal development. This is the *great American High School* of which we all are so justly proud as one of the outstanding contributions of the American people to world advancement.

SPECIALIZED HIGH SCHOOLS

The use of the designation, "specialized high school," is largely a relative matter. Few secondary schools in the United States concentrate exclusively on specialized training; almost all so-called specialized schools offer work in general education or the common-learnings area. For example, the great vocational high schools, such as the Hadley Vocational School in St. Louis, the Bryce Technical and Trade High School in Milwaukee, Technical High School of Omaha, and similar schools, all offer some work in the field of English, social studies, mathematics, science, and other academic areas. In the main, the specialized high school differs from the comprehensive high school in the relatively greater emphasis given to specialized fields of study, usually in the area of vocational preparation, and in the relatively lesser emphasis given to academic areas.

Some years ago there was a tendency in secondary school education to divorce vocational and trade education from work in the more academic subject fields. In recent years, though, most educators agree that *all* secondary school pupils, including pupils in vocational courses, need continuing experiences in the common integrating learnings, which some call general education. Everyone must first of all be a competent citizen, a wise consumer, a richly contributing member of a family group, and a sociable individual; secondly, he should be a competent and skilled worker in his chosen field. It is not educationally sound to draw a sharp line between vocational education and general education and offer each independently in separate institutions so that part of the pupils get a thor-

PLATE 12

A SPECIALIZED HIGH SCHOOL. The Central High School of Needle Trades in New York is a specialized high school, offering vocational courses in garment making, textile trades, shoe making and the like. (Courtesy of the Central High School of Needle Trades, New York)

ough education in one field, and others in another field. As was pointed out in Chapter IV, both general and vocational education are essential aspects of a well-rounded educational program for boys and girls. Such a program is the American tradition.

Specialized high schools exist, then, to provide opportunities for

thorough education in specialized areas, as well as in basic common learnings, and are organized in the main in large cities that wish to avoid the establishment and maintenance of unnecessary duplicate facilities for certain types of expensive specialized education, such as electronics, stage design, dress design, art, commercial advertising, and the like. Agricultural high schools, on the other hand, are usually found in large rural areas where the small general high schools of the villages cannot provide broad programs in agriculture and related areas.

The two main arguments in favor of the organization of specialized high schools are (1) that it facilitates the development of exceptionally fine programs in areas of study that would prove to be too expensive or too impractical for each comprehensive high school of the city or area to provide; (2) that by gathering together pupils with kindred interests and outlooks it contributes to better morale and more homogeneity. Thus the administration and staff are better enabled to meet the needs of pupils who have common interests. Some educators feel that in the comprehensive high school, too frequently the vocational work is subordinated to the more prestigious academic program.

The chief arguments against the organization of specialized high schools are (1) that they are essentially undemocratic and contrary to the American concept of equality of opportunity; (2) that they overemphasize areas of specialization to the neglect of general education; (3) that they foster class consciousness; (4) that they make necessary for many pupils a premature choice of vocations; (5) that they weaken the program of vocational education in the comprehensive high school.

New York City has the most extensive system of specialized high schools. Included in its plan are high schools for science, music and art, needle trades, automotive trades, homemaking, commerce, food trades, machine and metal trades, printing, textiles, and general vocations. Most of these schools have selective admission; only pupils who meet certain specified requirements are admitted. In some cases qualifying examinations are given. The Central High School of Needle Trades in New York City, shown on the opposite page, is an example of a specialized high school.

PART-TIME HIGH SCHOOLS

A third type of secondary school is the part-time high school. Such schools are of two types: part-time continuation schools and evening high schools. Obviously, such schools are found only in the larger town and city systems. In the continuation schools, young people of the community who, for one reason or another, have dropped out of high school before graduation may continue their education on a part-time basis during the day. The pupil is in school for a period of from four to twenty or

even more hours a week. In general, employed pupils spend from four to eight hours a week in school, but unemployed pupils spend as many as twenty or thirty hours.

The continuation school is usually administered as a separate unit divorced from the regular high school and is often housed in a separate building. Occasionally, instruction is given by the continuation high school at a factory or shop where sufficiently large numbers of the students are employed. Where a continuation school is housed in the same building as a regular high school, the student body is managed and administered as a separate group and not as a part of the regular school population. The instructional program is largely centered on shop and trade courses, although academic subjects, especially those appropriate for general education, are available. Short-term courses of only several weeks duration may also be provided for special groups.

The continuation high school should not be confused with cooperative work programs frequently included in the offerings of the regular high school. These programs are aspects of vocational education in the regular curriculum, with the pupils spending a portion of the school week on jobs in business establishments in order that they may secure work experiences and on-the-job training. Such work experience is under the direction and supervision of the school, and the pupils obtain school credit for the work. The pupils are full-time students carrying a normal school load, including the work experience.

The evening high school, as the name indicates, is a school in session during the evening hours only. It is attended by persons who are employed during the day. The evening school in most communities is really an adult school which offers work that ranges from simple elementary subjects in basic skills to college-level general and technical subjects. However, many of the subjects are of the secondary level, and under certain conditions may be counted toward high school graduation. Regardless of whether they carry credit, they are helpful in rounding out a pupil's general education or in providing vocational training. Emphasis in most evening schools is on shop and trade courses, business subjects, homemaking, and leisure-time crafts. The broad courses in general education that are helpful in developing social and civic understanding have been neglected in most evening school programs. The adult high school shown in Plate 13 offers work in both the afternoon and evening hours so that various groups of adults may better be served.

Size of High Schools

Approximately two thirds of all the public secondary schools of the United States have less than 200 pupils enrolled; approximately 40 per cent have less than 100 pupils. Our nation is literally dotted with small village high schools. However, if we consider numbers of pupils, we

find that over half of all secondary pupils in public schools are attending schools that have 500 or more pupils enrolled. The distribution of the secondary schools of the United States according to their size in 1945–1946 is shown in Table 9. These figures include all types of secondary schools except junior colleges, such as junior high schools, five- or six-year high schools, senior high schools, and four-year schools.

We have no conclusive evidence as to what the desirable size for a secondary school is. Many educators believe that a high school should have about 500 pupils as a minimum if the school is to provide efficiently and economically the breadth of program and the educational services and facilities necessary to serve adequately the needs of boys and girls. On the other hand, the excessively large metropolitan high school is probably too large to constitute a well-managed, integrated institution. Probably a high school enrolling from about 500 to 2,000 pupils represents the most

TABLE 9

Distribution of Public Secondary Schools in the United States According to Size of Enrollment, 1945–1946

SIZE OF ENROLLMENT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	PER CENT OF TOTAL
5,000 and over	12	0.1
2,500–4,999	130	0.5
1,500–2,499	544	2.2
1,000–1,499	784	3.2
750– 999	772	3.2
500– 749	1,440	5.9
400– 499	914	3.8
300– 399	1,462	6.0
200– 299	2,643	10.9
150– 199	2,266	9.3
100– 149	3,654	15.0
75– 99	2,548	10.5
50– 74	3,117	12.8
25– 49	2,686	11.1
10– 24	975	4.0
1– 9	234	1.0
Ungraded	133	0.5
	24,314	100.0

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1949).

desirable situation for a good secondary school. The National Commission on School District Reorganization has stated that each junior and senior high school should have a minimum of 300 pupils enrolled.[2] If this standard is accepted as valid, about 18,000 high schools, or three fourths of all high schools in the nation, have less than the minimum enrollment desirable for a good secondary school.

[2] National Commission on School District Reorganization, *A Key to a Better Education* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1947), p. 11.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

The problem of the small high school is especially pronounced in rural areas and in states predominantly rural in composition. The problem may be illustrated by drawing on facts found in a study by one of the authors of high school size in Nebraska. In 1945–1946, the state had 495 four-year or senior high schools. Of this number, 228, or 46 per cent, had less than 50 pupils in attendance; more disturbing is the fact that 85 of the 495 had less than 25 pupils attending the high school. Yet half of the high school pupils of the state were attending a high school with 200 or more pupils in attendance. The 14 largest high schools

PLATE 13

A CLASS IN AMERICAN HISTORY IN A PART-TIME HIGH SCHOOL. In this part-time high school adult citizens, immigrants, foreign-born wives of war veterans, and displaced persons permitted to enter this country may learn more about America, as well as acquire vocational skills. (Courtesy of the Adult High School, Lincoln, Nebraska)

in the state, each with an enrollment of 500 pupils or more, had as many pupils in attendance in the aggregate as did the 361 schools that had enrollments of 100 pupils or less. Nebraska has a great mass of small local school districts, but even with a thoroughgoing reorganization of school districts the problem of the small high school would still prevail, for in 46 of the 93 counties of the state, or almost exactly one half, the total number of pupils attending high school in the entire county is less than 400 pupils. The situation in Nebraska, although perhaps extreme, typifies conditions in many of the agricultural states.

A reorganization of school districts that will bring about high schools of more efficient size is essential in many states. The boys and girls who are forced to attend a school that has the most meager curriculum—and that usually an academic college-preparatory program, that has the simplest of equipment and facilities, few if any services in the way of health, counseling, audiovisual learning materials, library facilities, and the like, are being denied opportunities equal to those of their more fortunate brothers and sisters who attend our magnificent city high schools.

Small high schools are not all bad, of course, for they have some unique advantages that may be turned to the benefit of their pupils. Yet the lack of leadership and well-trained staffs in these schools frequently results in mediocre programs that utterly fail to meet the needs of rural students. One thing is certain: we should try to consolidate our rural high schools into larger schools, but even then, if rural youth are to have the privileges of a good program of secondary education, we must have much more capable and forward-looking staffs.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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IX ADMINISTERING THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

If society is to provide schools for its youth it is obvious that someone must take steps to establish, direct, and manage them. This management constitutes school administration. Administration in general may be defined as the process of directing organized efforts toward the accomplishment of chosen objectives. School administration, then, is the process of making provisions for the education of pupils, and of directing and managing the facilities and agencies necessary to provide the educational program.

It is clear at once that the way in which the educational program is administered is of utmost importance to the teacher, who himself has administrative functions as well as responsibilities as a teacher. The facilities and equipment available for his use, his duties and responsibilities, his terms of employment, the size of his classes, the methods he uses in carrying forward educational experiences with boys and girls, and, most important of all, the kinds of experiences he may plan and develop are all aspects of the administrative process. Because of the importance of administration to the teacher, this chapter will consider it from his point of view. It is essential that he understand this process and know good practices for administering schools, because it is only as all persons and agencies concerned with the education of youth work harmoniously for common ends that the most effective program can be developed.

The Functioning of Administration

THE PURPOSE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The purpose of secondary school administration is to provide an organized program for the education of adolescents. Every administrative act must be directed to one end, and that end only—the guidance of the growth and development of boys and girls. Administration is not an end in and of itself; we do not set up an institution just to administer it. We administer schools solely to facilitate the planning and carrying forward of an educational program that will achieve the goals sought by the society providing the schools. The kind of administrative organization that is set up should be determined by the kind of end product or end result we want, because the service to be provided sets the pattern for administering that service. From this fact it is apparent that the machinery for adminis-

tration and the procedures to be used in directing the educational enterprise can be planned only in terms of our accepted goals for education.

The purposes of secondary education discussed in Chapter IV constitute the basis on which administrative organizations, procedures, and policies must be planned. The kind of an education we want for boys and girls in America posits the kind of secondary school administrative pattern we must have. We must not blindly adopt for educational administration the administrative pattern of a large industrial concern or of an army. The goals and purposes of each of these agencies are vastly different, and an administrative organization designed to produce large numbers of automobiles on an assembly-line basis may not be appropriate for aiding boys and girls to become better and more effective members of a democratic society. From practices in industry the science of management has developed empirically, a body of principles of administration, but before they are applied to organized educational agencies they must be evaluated in terms of their adequacy for achieving the ends sought through education.

AGENCIES OF ADMINISTRATION

Since secondary school administration is the process of directing organized efforts for providing education to boys and girls of secondary school age, it follows that anyone or any agency involved in actually carrying out any part of the plan of education is performing administrative functions. Thus, at the local level, the citizens of the community, the members of the board of education, the superintendent of schools, the principal of the high school, the teachers, and the pupils all have administrative functions and responsibilities in providing education.

The task of organizing and coordinating the efforts of all of these agencies for the effective development of a worth-while program of education is a major responsibility. It necessitates the providing of buildings, facilities, and equipment, the raising and expending of money to support the educational enterprise, the selecting and appointing of a teaching staff, the planning of a curriculum, and many kindred duties. To build and operate a system of schools that will carry out the purposes of the state, embody the best practices developed by our science of education, and effectively serve the needs of the young persons of the community requires consummate skill and ability on the part of those whose major responsibility is that of administering.

In addition to administrative responsibilities at the local level are the important administrative obligations for education that must be met by state and federal agencies of government. Since the role of these divisions of government has already been discussed, attention in this chapter will be directed more specifically to the administrative duties of local authorities and agencies.

ASPECTS OF ADMINISTRATION

Administration has five aspects, all of which, of course, are integrated in actual practice. These processes are [1]

Planning. Planning is the process of determining the nature of the educational enterprise. It must precede the establishment of the school itself, but it never ends, because efforts to improve the program of education are continuously going forward. The schools need to adjust to changing conditions in society at large, to plan educational experiences that will enable boys and girls to live more satisfactorily in a changed and changing world society. The program must be redirected as conditions in the society itself change, as educators gain a better knowledge of the educational process through research and empirical evidence, and as we gain a better knowledge of the process of growth and development of boys and girls.

All agencies concerned with education are involved in the planning process. It is the task of administration to organize and utilize the insight and understanding of these agencies. Planning in secondary schools includes such things as the determination of the subjects to be offered, the kinds of educational experiences to be included in each subject, ways in which students will gain these experiences, the grades or groups to be included in the school, and many similar important matters.

In carrying out the planning function, modern school administrative theory emphasizes two interrelated principles:

1. Those who are responsible for carrying out plans and policies should have a part in their formulation.

2. Provision should be made for a flow of knowledge and insight from wherever it exists to wherever it is needed.

Acceptance of these principles means that everyone who has an interest in the schools will participate in some measure at least in the formulation of plans and policies for the direction of the schools. Citizens generally, parents, the board of education, administrative officials of the school, teachers, and pupils should all have a voice in the development of plans and policies. Of course the role and responsibility of each group will vary, but that does not minimize the importance of the contribution nor the necessity for securing the aid and counsel of all groups. Such practices represent a simple adherence to basic principles of democratic control.

School systems have developed various methods of securing the participation of these groups in school planning. Councils or committees of various types, which are representative of the groups concerned, may be established. Such councils may be advisory, or they may actually make decisions.

[1] See Jesse B. Sears, *Public School Administration* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), Chap. 5.

In developing over-all plans and policies for the entire educational system of the state, the legislature has final authority. Frequently, however, legislation is based on the recommendations of lay advisory councils, such as the action of the legislature of Florida in 1947, which passed laws embodying in the main the recommendations of a citizen's committee that had been engaged in a study of educational needs of the state for the previous three years.

At the local level, boards of education are, of course, legally responsible for adopting plans and policies for the development of the educational program of the community. The boards themselves are a lay body

PLATE 14

A FACULTY ADVISORY COUNCIL. This principal has established a faculty advisory council that aids him in determining school policies and that participates as representatives of the faculty in planning the school program. (Courtesy of the Prospect Junior High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania)

representing the citizens; yet they in turn on many occasions in numerous communities have set up various advisory councils and committees to facilitate the flow of information and points of view from groups in the community to the board.

Superintendents of schools in many cities have developed teacher-advisory groups and even pupil-advisory groups to aid them in the formu-

lation of plans and policies. In the individual school, the practice for teachers cooperatively to develop plans and policies is well established in school administration. Much remains to be done in the implementation of cooperative planning in school administration, but certainly major strides in that direction have been made in many communities in the relatively few years in which the concept of democratic participation has become accepted in school administration circles. Plate 14 shows such an advisory council in session.

Organizing. Organizing is the process of dividing the total educational task into subdivisions of work and responsibility so that efficiency and economy of time, effort, and money may be obtained. Organization facilitates a division of labor and the orderly carrying out of duties and functions. Schools must be organized so that they may be administered; they are administered so that pupils may be educated. Organization systematizes the educational program and makes it manageable. Obviously, organization becomes more elaborate and detailed in the larger school. Herein lies a danger—that organization may become so complex and intricate that it defeats its own end, namely, to facilitate the carrying on of an educational program. Yet lack of adequate organization leads to confusion and even chaos. In formulating a plan of school organization the purpose must always be kept in mind—that an organizational plan exists solely to achieve the ends sought.

Organizing the educational enterprise is an intricate and complex responsibility. The board of education, the superintendent of schools, and the principals of the schools are chiefly responsible for organizing the educational program of the local community. The organization, however, must be made within the framework prescribed by state laws or by the rules and regulations of the state department of education, and by any other agencies that control educational enterprises. For example, the state largely determines the organization of the system of local school districts, the power of the local school district to provide education, the nature and powers of boards of education and superintendents of schools, procedures for moving or promoting pupils from one level of schooling to the next higher level, and many similar policies that effectively control the organization of the local school system.

Within the legal and regulatory framework set up by the state, local school authorities, of course, still possess many discretionary powers for organization of the schools. They decide how the educational program shall be divided into sequential units, commonly called grades, and how these grades shall be allocated to buildings. Some systems provide a nursery grade, many a kindergarten; some end the elementary school with the sixth grade, others with the seventh or eighth grade; some continue secondary education to include grades thirteen and fourteen.

Within the secondary school itself organization is necessary so that

there will be unity, order, and efficiency in carrying forward the educational experiences to be provided for boys and girls. These experiences must be organized and differentiated, usually through the development of school subjects and the offering of a program of studies. Some experiences, however, are provided outside regular classroom work; therefore a program of extraclassroom activities is organized. Which types of experiences should be classroom and which extraclassroom? Who should be responsible for counseling and advising the student? Who should requisition instructional supplies, educational films, and the like? How long shall the school day be, and how shall it be divided into periods? These and many similar problems are all aspects of the organization of the school. Major aspects of organization, such as the organization of the school system itself and of the curriculum, are treated more extensively in other chapters of this book.

The real test of an organizational plan for schools is how well it contributes to the growth and development of boys and girls. Good organization must promote unity, efficiency, and cohesion; yet it must allow for freedom and flexibility in operation. Plans must permit changes and deviations as conditions change. Although principles and practices drawn from long experience with various types of school organization are most helpful as guides for organizing the school, the local situation itself should be the most important consideration in formulating a plan of organization.

Organizational machinery is little better than the persons who operate it, and all plans need to be adjusted to local conditions. Teachers should carry on their work so that it correlates with the rest of the school organization. They need to understand the division of labor that applies, and come to understand the relationship of what they do to the total program of education. They must not, however, let organizational machinery serve to defeat the realization of the aims of education.

Directing. After plans have been made, they must be put into effect. This process of directing is another important function of administration. Direction includes a myriad of tasks carried out daily by the school superintendent and the principal. It involves decisions relative to who shall carry out plans; agreement by those concerned with their implementation as to the nature and meaning of the plans and policies formulated; provision of the physical equipment necessary to carry them out; scheduling; preparation of necessary reports and records; and many similar acts involved in carrying out all aspects of the educational program. It may necessitate issuing orders, holding conferences, and supervising activity. Many of the acts of the principal in his day-by-day job will fall under this heading. Direction is the major aspect of execution, and is particularly the province of the principal and his executive staff.

Coordinating. Coordinating is the process of integrating all

aspects of the school into a common program that will contribute maximally to the realization of the aims of education—the worth-while development of boys and girls. Coordination is closely allied to planning, because if planning has been comprehensive and sound, the various aspects of the school program will harmonize and fit together into an acceptable pattern. The principal must view the work of his school as a whole and coordinate all phases of it so that each contributes its part to the realization of a desirable program. This is not to say that teachers do not have a part in effecting integration, because if teachers are to participate effectively and wisely in planning they must view the work of the school in its totality and must understand how any new plans or policies are related to the present program of the school and how they will aid in further increasing the effectiveness of the school. Good organization obviously facilitates coordination.

Appraising. Appraising is the process of determining the effectiveness of the school. Hence it is a value judgment; it is the determination of the worth of an undertaking. If we are to judge the value of any phase of the school's program, or of any plan or policy, we must first decide what is most worth-while—what our standard of value is. In any educational enterprise our system of values is based on what we consider to be the aims of education, on what constitutes the goals of education. The merit of any phase of the program is then judged by the extent to which it contributes to a realization of these objectives. Those who appraise must, therefore, be thoroughly familiar with the goals sought.

Evaluation, another term for appraisal, is the responsibility in one way or another of all who are concerned with the work of the school. Thus citizens, parents, board of education, superintendent, principal, teachers, and students all have responsibilities for evaluation. Evaluation is a continuing responsibility; it begins with planning and continues as long as the school functions. Whenever a taxpayer says that the schools cost too much money, or parents banquet the football team, or a teacher gives a student a mark on his report card, appraisal of some aspect of the school program is taking place.

Because evaluation means a judgment of the value of some phase of the school in terms of an objective which is explicitly or implicitly accepted it becomes an important matter to aid whoever does the appraising to understand the valid and proper objectives of the school. Much of the appraisal of school programs now is done on the basis of objectives not fully consistent with the accepted aims of secondary education. This truth applies to teachers as well as to citizens and parents.

The administrator has three obligations in this area of responsibility: to secure agreement on the part of all concerned regarding the real objectives of schools, to appraise the work of the school for which he is responsible, and to guide his staff in making valid and proper evaluations.

His responsibilities increase if he develops a plan for democratic participation in planning and policy making. Cooperative planning courts disaster unless those who participate in it first agree on sound and acceptable objectives for education. Otherwise group decisions may be made that will be contrary to the best interests of boys and girls. Prejudice, self-interest, and unsound premises have no place in true evaluation. The administrator himself, of course, may not be omniscient; he may be just as biased in his judgments, unless he too has developed a sound concept of the ends of education. He above all must hold fast to a sound basis for evaluating the work of his school.

Any plan proposed for the school needs careful scrutiny in terms of how well it will contribute to a better realization of educational goals. Likewise, continuous with the carrying out of any plan or program, appraisal needs to be made of the merit and value of the activity in the total educational scheme. Teachers, in working with pupils, need constantly to appraise the value of what is being done; and the pupils themselves have appraisals to make—appraisals of how well they are achieving goals consistent with sound educational policy.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES ILLUSTRATED

An example of the functioning of administration may be helpful here in imparting an understanding of the work of administrators. The account will, obviously, be much abbreviated; many details will necessarily be omitted. It will relate to the installation of a course in driver education in the secondary schools of a city.

Interest in driver education was not a sudden, overnight development in this city. For a number of years national educational groups and national leaders in education had urged the introduction in the program of the secondary schools of instruction in the driving of automobiles. Voluntary organizations had formed safety councils, conducted conferences, and prepared extensive literature on the teaching of safety and driver education. A few schools over the country had experimented, it is true, with a program of driver education, but in general little had been done prior to World War II to install such a program in the high school.

(This represents a type of planning by the school administrative staff—superintendent, principals, supervisors—in rejecting, or not even giving consideration to, a proposal for modification of the high school curriculum. Of course, administrators must do much of this rejecting, because many groups and individuals would like to have their pet ideas installed in the school curriculum. The important thing is the basis on which the rejection or the refusal to consider is made and by whom such decisions are made. Should boards of education, planning councils of citizens, parents, or teachers consider every recommendation offered by individuals or groups for modification of the educational program of the school?)

After World War II, deaths and injuries from automobile accidents increased alarmingly. Official community and state safety councils were organized throughout the country. Newspaper editors, educators, government officials, and citizens generally were pleading for the country to do something to reduce accidents. National automobile and safety organizations intensified their campaigns for introduction of safety and driver education in the schools. Then a national automobile organization developed a plan for driver education according to which they would make a car available to schools for teaching driver education and assist them in training instructors for the course. (This is planning by lay citizens, albeit a pressure group in this case.)

This offer came to the attention of the superintendent of schools in the city that is the subject of our illustration. In a conference, he brought the matter to the attention of his staff and to the principals of the high schools of the city. It was discussed thoroughly, and the group decided to study the matter further. (This is planning at the local administrative level, as well as appraisal. Evidently the members of the administrative conference judged that the proposal had a great deal of merit and that driver education would make a worth-while contribution to the growth and development of boys and girls; otherwise they would have rejected it without further consideration.)

Meanwhile, other school systems of the state had received, and were considering, similar proposals. The chief state school officer, head of the state department of education, was of course cognizant of what was happening and, in a measure at least, of what was being done in other states. At the suggestion of several superintendents of the state, the chief state school officer called a conference of interested school officials to discuss proposals for driver education. The members of the conference, after discussing the proposal thoroughly, requested that the state department of education prepare a statement of principles to govern the offering of driver instruction and a set of regulations governing the granting of credit for such a course. They also asked the department to hold institutes for persons who would teach such courses in the school. (This conference represents planning as well as appraisal at the state level.) Subsequently the state department developed a brief guide for schools, which offered suggestions for giving the driver-education course. (This, again, is planning at the state level.)

In our city school system, meanwhile, the superintendent, the associate superintendent, high school principals, the assistant superintendents in charge of business affairs and of buildings and equipment were holding conferences to decide on the nature of the driver education course in the schools; decisions needed to be reached as to what high school students could take the course, the amount of time to be devoted to class instruction and to behind-the-wheel driving experience, the amount of credit to

be granted, the scheduling during the school day, who should instruct the students, how the cars for practice driving were to be obtained, how much the program would cost, and numerous other details of the program.

(This represents planning and appraisal by local school administrative officials. In this example, teachers and pupils as a group had no part in the planning. In some school systems, the proposal for offering instruction in driver education would have been referred by the superintendent at the outset to a teachers' curriculum council or a similar group for consideration and for recommendations as to the action that the school system should take. The proposal itself may even have originated in the council, although in this example the proposal originated with lay organizations.)

Early in the consideration of the program, the superintendent of schools had presented the proposal informally to the board of education. The board members discussed the proposal briefly, indicated interest in the program, and requested that the superintendent develop the proposal more fully for later consideration. That was the basis for the planning done by the administrative staff. After plans were well developed, as was described previously, the superintendent presented the plan to the board of education. After lengthy discussion the board approved the plan and, to cover the cost of the program for the balance of the year, authorized the transfer of sufficient funds from a reserve fund to the current budget. (This is planning and policy making by the lay board of education, representing the community, and also appraisal, for they judged the proposal to be a worthy undertaking of the secondary school.)

On approval of the plan by the board of education, the superintendent now had a mandate to carry the plan into effect. (The matter now passes to the executing phase of administration, which involves organizing, directing, and coordinating.) The assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs was instructed to make contracts with automobile dealers for cars and with companies for insurance coverage. The assistant superintendent in charge of buildings and equipment made arrangements for storing and servicing the automobiles. The associate superintendent, who had charge of curriculum and teacher personnel, worked with the principals of every high school in selecting teachers for the program and in securing teacher supplies and materials. The high school principals arranged the course in the schedule and made arrangements for class work and behind-the-wheel instruction, assigned rooms, provided for the registration of pupils for the course, conferred with teachers on the nature of the instruction to be offered, and performed numerous minor tasks necessary to get the program under way. (This represents organizing and directing, and some elements of coordinating.)

As the driver education course developed during the school year, the principal visited the classes and rode in the cars with the instructors as

they gave driving practice. He conferred frequently with the teachers, discussing with them the nature of the work and the problems encountered. (This task comprises elements of supervision, which is also an important responsibility of the principal but one not considered administrative in character, as well as elements of coordination, direction, and certainly appraisal.) The teachers of the course found that they had many problems that they needed to discuss with the principal. Teachers made recommendations to the principal to guide him in his decisions; they had reports to make and records to keep. Thus they too had administrative responsibilities in carrying out school plans and programs.

Appraisal was evident through the entire development of the driver education program, but on conclusion of the course a more thoroughgoing and extensive evaluation was made by teachers, pupils, and principal. Evidence was secured of the pupils' driving ability in actual road conditions, their knowledge of traffic laws and regulations, their information on the mechanical and physical principles of an automobile, and their attitudes toward safe driving. The principal examined the over-all educational program of the pupils involved to see whether enrollment in the driving course crowded out other more important educational experiences. The superintendent evaluated the program by recommending its continuance and by requesting that the board of education approve a budget including the cost of offering the program the following year. The board of education appraised the program in the process of approving the request.

Not all administrative acts are as easily described or performed as those hastily sketched here, but the account should serve to illustrate for students of education the functioning of administration.

Administrative Practices in Secondary Schools

This section will present information on some of the more important administrative practices of the better secondary schools of today. Teachers should be informed on these practices, because all administrative procedures have an important bearing on teaching and on the relationship of teachers to the executive officers of the school.

LINE-AND-STAFF ORGANIZATION

In practically all secondary schools except the smallest, a principal serves as executive officer. He is the direct representative of the superintendent of schools, who in turn is the representative of the board of education. This relationship constitutes what we call the *line* organization of the school, because it indicates the line of authority in carrying out the executive function. In the larger city school systems there may also be an associate or assistant superintendent in the line organization

who stands between the superintendent and the principals and to whom the principals are immediately responsible.

In so far as executive functions are concerned, the principal is responsible for carrying out plans, policies, and orders emanating from the office of the superintendent. Of course, as has been previously stated in this chapter, these plans and policies may well have been the product of the cooperative thinking of all who could contribute in a significant manner to their development. As the responsible head of his school, the principal, in turn, directs his teachers in carrying into effect the over-all policies of the school system. He also directs the school staff in carrying out plans, policies, and programs that come within the province of the individual high school to determine. These may be his own decisions or the result of teacher deliberations under his guidance.

Some of the larger secondary schools may have a more elaborate line organization, with assistant principals and chairmen of departments of the school exercising executive functions under the direction of the principal.

The *staff* organization of a school is composed of persons who advise and assist the line officers in carrying out their executive responsibilities. They do not have administrative authority over anyone except personnel in their respective offices. School systems vary greatly in the number and titles of these staff officers. In larger systems the officers usually may be grouped into four types of specialists, according to their duties: instruction, personnel, child accounting, and business and plant management. Such staff officers may include supervisors of various school services or subjects; directors of guidance, visual education, research, health and physical education, adult education, vocational education, and similar phases of the school program; a business manager; director of personnel; director of public relations; and similar officers.

Certain staff members may be attached to the principal's office of the individual high school. These most frequently include a specialist in guidance, deans of boys and of girls, a director of audiovisual education, a school nurse, and coordinators of instruction. Of course, the smaller the school system, the fewer the staff members employed; in the smallest system the superintendent or supervisory principal is the only executive officer of the school. In Plate 15 on the next page the director of audiovisual aids, a staff officer, is shown demonstrating the use of a motion picture projector to a new teacher.

Staff members have no administrative authority over teachers. They may not issue orders or control the action or work of the teaching staff. They are responsible to their superior administrative officer: those attached to the central administrative officer, to the superintendent of schools or his assistant; those assigned to the individual school, to the principal. Their responsibilities are primarily to perform services that will aid the school better to fulfill its functions of educating boys and girls.

Staff members advise teachers on curriculum developments and work with them in innumerable ways to improve the program of the school. They are specialists who are available for advice and counsel in planning a better educational program. Some perform routine office duties necessary for the efficient functioning of the school, and thereby relieve administrative officers for more important tasks. Teachers will find that the

PLATE 15

SUPERVISORS HELP TEACHERS UTILIZE NEW TEACHING RESOURCES. A director of audio-visual aids shows a teacher how to use a motion-picture projector. (Courtesy of the Louisville, Nebraska, Public Schools)

right kind of staff member will be a valuable aid to them in their instructional duties. An excellent statement of the responsibilities of a principal and of the nature of his relationship to members of his teaching staff and to supervisors and staff members is found in the bulletin on school organization that was formulated by the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools. The statement follows:

ORGANIZATION OF BUILDING PERSONNEL

In each of the sixteen buildings in Battle Creek, the principal is regarded as the leader of the building organization. The principal's responsibilities include:

1. General supervision of instruction throughout the building.
2. Organization of building committees and studies to improve the instructional program.
3. Interpretation of city-wide policies to the faculty, and interpretation of building problems to the administration.
4. Interpretation of the school program to parents, and cooperation with parents in school and community projects.
5. Maintenance of adequate records and reports.
6. Supervision of building maintenance.
7. Requisitioning of adequate supplies and facilities.
8. Providing help through consultants, visiting teachers, school nurses, and others for teachers and pupils.
9. Evaluation of all personnel assigned to the building with annual recommendations to the administration concerning the continuation of employment of all personnel.

Each principal is responsible for planning with his faculty, and in cooperation with the Assistant Superintendent and Superintendent, for such administrative arrangements and assignment of duties as are necessary to carry out these functions. Principals are freed of a maximum amount of clerical duties so that their time may be devoted to creative work with teachers, pupils, and parents. In the larger secondary schools they have special assistance in pupil personnel problems through the work of counselors. In all buildings, principals are able to secure help for their faculties through the various consultants in instruction; for their maintenance and building problems through the Division of Business Affairs; and for their administrative problems through the Assistant Superintendent and Superintendent.

The responsibility of the evaluation of personnel cannot be delegated by the principal to other employees of the system. Consultants in instruction are available to help teachers, the Supervisor of the School Plant to help operating and maintenance personnel, and the Chief Secretary to help clerical and secretarial personnel, but the determination of satisfactory and unsatisfactory performance is the responsibility of the principal alone. Principals should confer frequently with building personnel on evaluative procedures and problems and should bring cases of unsatisfactory performance directly and as early as determined to the attention of the Assistant Superintendent and Superintendent, who will assist the principal as necessary in such cases. Personnel who are dissatisfied with evaluations may bring their cases to the Assistant Superintendent and Superintendent, and, by arrangement with the Superintendent for a Board meeting, to the Board of Education. Cases may also be appealed to the faculty Committee on Professional Problems and Appeals.[2]

GROUPING STUDENTS

One of the most vexatious problems in high school administration is that of the grouping of pupils for instructional purposes. By grouping, we mean the arrangement whereby students are assigned to

[2] Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools, *School Organization* in *Battle Creek* (Battle Creek, Mich.: The Schools, August, 1948), p. 5. Mimeographed.

school classes or other activities for educational purposes. We group pupils so that the instructional program of the school may be more efficiently organized and managed and so that we can better guide the growth and development of pupils through such groupings. It is difficult to conceive of secondary schools that would not use some method of grouping pupils together for learning purposes.

Certain phases of grouping are performed by the board of education and the superintendent through the procedure of organizing school grades and then of assigning certain grades to certain levels of school organization and to certain buildings, such as a junior high school and a senior high school, or a four-year high school. In larger cities, the number, location, and types of high schools established also affect grouping. For example, if a separate vocational high school is organized, grouping of one type is achieved. If the city has more than one high school, their location is a factor in determining the composition of the group that attends each of them.

We are concerned here, however, more particularly with grouping practices in the individual secondary school. In the smaller secondary schools, school grades may comprise the chief basis of grouping. For example, all tenth-grade pupils are placed in the same, and only, English class open for such students; and all ninth-graders take world geography, since there is no other choice in the program of studies available. In high schools in which there are two or more sections of the same class, the real problem of grouping as we discuss it in secondary education arises. Who shall be assigned to each section?

In the main, five methods of grouping pupils into class sections have been used: (1) random or chance grouping; (2) grouping according to ability in the subject; (3) grouping according to general scholastic ability; (4) deliberate heterogeneous grouping on a selected criterion; (5) grouping according to the course of study selected or the high school plans.

A further aspect of grouping arises in the subdivisions that a teacher may make within a single class. He may wish to subdivide the class for small-group or committee work on certain aspects of the subject or topic under consideration. For such purposes he, too, may use one of these five methods for subdividing the class. Also, it should be apparent that the school may use several of these procedures for grouping in the various aspects of the school program. One method may be used in English, another in physical education, and so forth.

In considering the merits of each procedure for grouping, one must keep in mind the primary purpose of the school—to promote maximally the desirable growth and development of boys and girls. This growth and development have intellectual, emotional, social, and physical aspects. In random or chance grouping, pupils are simply assigned to class sections in terms of the convenience of scheduling or by assignment of the registra-

tion official or principal, without deliberate selection on any basis. Many school authorities contend that this is the best procedure, since it results in class sections that usually represent a rather good cross section of the pupils taking the subject and hence makes for a more normal and life-like situation, with pupils of varying abilities, as well as with varying social and home backgrounds, working together.

So-called homogeneous grouping has had a wide vogue in secondary schools. Under this procedure pupils are assigned to various class sections in a subject either on the basis of scholastic aptitude as measured by standard intelligence tests or of ability in the subject as measured by tests, former achievement in the subject, or both. The principal argument in favor of homogeneous grouping is that it facilitates instruction in the subject. If the members of the group are comparable in ability in the subject or in ability to learn the subject, rather than widely divergent in these respects, presumably the teacher can better adjust the level of work to the ability of the group, and hence improve the efficiency of the school as well as better serve the needs of each pupil.

The chief argument against homogeneous grouping is that it places the main, if not the exclusive, emphasis of the school on mastery of subject matter, to the neglect of social and emotional development. In fact, such procedures have frequently produced undesirable attitudes and personality traits on the part of the pupils concerned, both those in the most able groups and those in the least able sections.

The only reasonable answer to the problem of grouping is to group pupils in terms of the objectives to be achieved, or the job to be done. If the major task of a class is to learn the principles of demonstrative geometry, the sensible thing for the school to do is to group the pupils so that they will learn geometrical proof and principles best, *provided that* such grouping does not militate against the pupils' desirable social, emotional, and physical development, and *provided that* elsewhere in its program, the school offers adequate opportunity for the development of a well-rounded personality. Thus students taking geometry may be grouped *in the geometry class* according to their ability to learn geometry, but these groupings will be broken up and new groupings formed for social studies, shop, music, or science classes, for home room organization, or for school club activities. The all-round development of boys and girls must be the determining factor in grouping, not the wishes or convenience of teachers.

CLASS SIZE

As a larger and larger proportion of young persons have entered the secondary school, the administration has been hard pressed to provide facilities and staff to care for them. The result in most cities during the past twenty-five years has been a decided increase in the size of classes. Regardless of what administrators considered a desirable class size, they

were forced by the people of the community, either because of the inability or unwillingness of citizens to provide more buildings, more teachers, and more facilities, to crowd more and more pupils into one classroom.

Most educators agree that present-day classes are too large for sound educational purposes. What to do about it is an enormous problem. For example, the superintendent of schools of an American city of approximately 1,600,000 population estimated that in 1947 it would cost $200,000 to reduce the average size of all classes in the city by one pupil; and a superintendent in a city of 250,000 people estimated that it would cost $40,000 to reduce all classes by a single pupil. If an appreciable reduction in class size in most city school systems is to be effected, either the public must raise a great deal more money for school purposes, or teachers must divide the money available among more people, and hence reduce individual salaries. These facts are not presented to imply that the teaching profession should not work for a reduction in average class size. The public should be informed about the values to be gained from smaller classes and should be urged to provide more teachers and more classroom facilities.

What constitutes a desirable size for classes in the secondary school is a controversial matter. Again, the question must be resolved in terms of the function of secondary education—the all-round development of youth. Some aspects of the secondary program can probably be carried out as effectively under highly skilled teachers in classes of forty, fifty, or even sixty or more pupils as they can in classes of twenty-five or thirty. However, other activities should not be carried on in classes of more than twenty-five or thirty pupils. Classes or groups in which guidance activities and activities designed primarily for social and emotional development are carried on should undoubtedly be quite small, so that teachers in charge may become thoroughly familiar with each pupil, his needs, his personal qualities, and his problems.

Research studies showing how well pupils master subject matter in classes of various sizes constitute only one criterion for determining class size. Adequate provisions for guidance in social, personal, and emotional development are also important criteria for at least some phases of the high school program. Research on group size in these aspects of education is not available, but common sense indicates that teachers can do more in helping individual boys and girls with their needs and problems if groups are held to twenty-five or thirty rather than expanded to forty or fifty pupils.

TEACHER LOAD

An important concern to teachers is the load of school work that is assigned to them. The matter is equally important to administra-

tors; not only does a conscientious principal want to distribute the load fairly among his teachers, but he wants to avoid assigning teachers such a heavy load that they cannot do creative teaching. Yet he must operate his school efficiently and economically, and accomplish as much as possible with the funds made available by the public for operation of his school.

Factors in determining the school load of a teacher include:
Number of classes taught daily
Number of pupils taught
Number of different class preparations required
Length of class periods
Time spent in extraclassroom activities and other duties
Requirements for preparation, planning, and carrying forward the class work or activities

High school principals in larger secondary schools usually use these and possibly other factors in applying a crude formula of some kind for determining teacher load, so that teacher responsibilities may be equalized as nearly as possible. In smaller schools the principal usually relies on his good judgment in equalizing teacher load.

In some secondary schools, certain teachers, especially those coaching athletics, may be paid additional compensation for assuming teaching assignments that exceed the customary load for the school. On the other hand, most authorities believe that new and inexperienced teachers should be given lighter loads than are given more experienced colleagues. Otherwise a determined effort should be made to equalize the assigned load of individual teachers as nearly as possible. If small high schools are to carry on even a minimum program of extraclassroom activities, it may be necessary for some teachers on occasion to carry a heavy load of extraclassroom duties. In such situations, attempts should be made to equalize the load over a period of several years, so that an able and energetic teacher is not unduly overburdened.

Many forward-looking secondary school officials are trying to see that teachers have time during the school day for cooperative planning activities. For example, in one high school, pupils in the core groups of the various grades are released from school attendance one period a week, during which the core teachers meet together for a discussion and planning period. If teachers are to do more cooperative group planning, provisions should be made to include such opportunities in the scheduled work program for the year.

ENTRANCE, PROMOTION, AND GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS

Secondary schools should accept without restrictions all pupils who have completed the work of the elementary school. In our scheme of American public education, normal regular progression from one school

unit to the next is basic, and the secondary school has no justification for refusing to accept pupils whom the elementary school has certified as ready for the secondary unit. In actual practice, few school systems do set up entrance hurdles that may block transition from the elementary to the secondary school, but in the few systems that do "graduate" pupils from the elementary school and "admit" them if qualified, to the secondary school, the practice should be discontinued. Democratic education calls for normal progression from grade to grade without artificial barriers erected at the entrance of any one school unit.

A troublesome problem in this matter relates to admission requirements for entrance to specialized high schools in certain large cities. These cities have their comprehensive high schools, of course, which are open to all students, but in addition they have certain high schools that specialize in certain aspects of secondary education. Some schools of this type set entrance requirements for admission because they consider that only pupils qualified for this specialized training should be enrolled in the school.

For example, the New York City school system includes in addition to all of its comprehensive high schools sixteen specialized high schools.[3] Many of the sixteen have admission requirements that restrict opportunities in these schools to only qualified students. The High School of Music and Art conducts entrance examinations in the fields of music or art, and the pupil must qualify through such examinations before he is admitted. The Bronx High School of Science admits applicants on the basis of entrance examinations and previous school record. Only about one applicant of three or four is accepted. This practice does not seem objectionable, provided that the program of the comprehensive high school of the neighborhood is not curtailed and provided that the remainder of the pupils are not thereby denied opportunities they should have.

Promotion practices and policies also cause widespread debate in educational circles, although the problem at the secondary level has ramifications that are different from those it has at the elementary level. In high school, the problem becomes one of whether the pupil should receive a passing mark in the subject, and hence credit that may be counted toward graduation. Like most educational problems, the question of whether a pupil should be passed or failed must be decided in terms of educational objectives: what will best contribute to the growth and development of the particular boy or girl.

Again, all four aspects of growth—mental, social, emotional, and physical—must be kept in mind. A class or activity is designed to promote one or more of these phases of growth. If, during participation in the

[3] New York City Board of Education, *Specialized High Schools in New York City* (New York: The Board, 1946).

class, the pupil shows as much growth in these particular aspects as can reasonably be expected of him, he should probably be passed; if not, he should probably be failed. Thus each decision on passing or failing must be an individual one, made in terms of the needs, capacities, and abilities of the particular student, on the one hand, and in terms of the accepted objectives for the class, on the other. What is best for the pupil becomes the issue for the teacher in a particular class.

From the point of view of the school, however, the failure of pupils indicates that the school has itself failed either in providing an adequate guidance and counseling program or in planning and developing its educational program, or in both. A good guidance program not only will aid pupils in enrolling in classes and activities in which they have reasonably good prospects of succeeding but will aid the school in developing a program adapted to the needs and interests of its pupils. In addition, a cooperative clarification of the educational objectives of each class and activity will serve to determine whether the requirements being set for passing are valid.

Graduation from the secondary school usually is based on the amassing of the prescribed number of credits and the fulfilling of stated requirements as to course patterns. With accreditation practices and college entrance requirements being what they are, this basis for graduation will undoubtedly continue. Some educators would like to see graduation become more flexible, so that pupils will leave the secondary school whenever, in the judgment of the staff, either they were deemed ready to embark on the next stage of their life careers, such as taking jobs or going to colleges or technical schools, or the school had contributed all that it feasibly and economically could to their growth and development. Such a policy would be hard to carry out in our system of mass education; thus it stands little chance of adoption at present.

The question arises as to whether high schools should grant several types of diplomas, basing the type awarded on the fulfilling of specified requirements. Under such a plan, graduates from the traditional academic programs would receive one type of diploma and those from vocational programs another, whereas students who could not meet requirements for the "standard" diploma but who had amassed the total number of credits required would be given a third type.

Most secondary authorities decry such a practice; they believe that only one type of diploma should be granted by the school and that it should be granted to all pupils who the school considers have met minimum general requirements. To the contention that this "cheapens" the diploma and makes it meaningless, the answer is that a diploma simply signifies that the high school considers the pupil ready to leave the school with its blessing. A college admissions officer or an employer who wants

information about the knowledge possessed by the graduate, his personal qualities, or his capabilities should secure confidential information directly from the school officer; he should not expect a diploma to certify such data.

PUPIL RECORDS

A necessary task of all secondary schools is to keep records about their pupils. These records usually include personal data, class enrollment, schedule of daily activities, attendance, marks and credits earned, health status, and information desirable for guidance and counseling activities. Teachers have an essential part in maintaining school records, because some of the information originates with the classroom or homeroom teacher, and he is responsible for its completeness and accuracy. Teachers should provide information needed for school records promptly and accurately.

Teachers may secure helpful information from school records, especially those maintained for guidance purposes. In fact, many of these records are designed primarily to help teachers understand their pupils. The teacher, in turn, may add pertinent information to these records in the form of observational data and comments on pupil attitudes, personal qualities, work habits, and the like. Of course, personal information about individual pupils should be treated confidentially by the teacher; it should not be the subject of comment before fellow students or around the boardinghouse table. Chapter XX further discusses the kinds of information about pupils that are helpful in carrying on guidance activities.

DEVELOPING PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The schools belong to the people, and in a large measure the program and the opportunities that schools provide for the young will reflect the wishes of the citizens of the community. Intelligent understanding of the objectives and purposes of the school on the part of the public is essential. How to develop this understanding, as well as how to secure the cooperation of the citizens in the development of a sound program of secondary education, is an important problem facing school administrators and teachers. All too frequently the interpretation program of the school comprises news items in the local paper, mostly about athletic contests; unplanned and unguided remarks by pupils and teachers; and talks by school officials before parents' organizations and civic groups.

School-community understanding should be based on participation by parents and citizens generally in cooperative school planning. The best means of developing public understanding of the school is to give the public opportunities for discussing alone and with school people the

program of the school. A well-organized parent-teacher association under expert guidance constitutes an excellent vehicle for this purpose, although community planning and discussion groups should include more than the parents of school children. Teachers should welcome opportunities to meet with parents and the public and to discuss with them the work of the school.

Teachers may promote better understanding of the school in numerous individual ways. Discussion of school problems and plans in informal contacts with friends is helpful, but gossip, malicious criticism, and unwarranted faultfinding should never enter into the expression of views. In their contacts with the public teachers should present problems and information that will aid the lay citizen to fulfill his obligations as a supporter of the schools; they should not arouse his suspicions or mistrust. The teacher is always a representative of the schools, and what he says or does, the attitudes he takes, the views he expresses, inevitably interpret, in a small or large measure, the school to the public.

In the classroom, the teacher can do much to help pupils secure a better understanding of the school if he will guide them in developing a greater insight into its purposes and programs. Not only is this essential for good morale and for good learning, but pupils in turn may be ambassadors of good will for the school. If pupils help formulate school policy, if they have thought through the purposes and objectives of the school, and if they understand the contributions made by each phase of the school's program to a realization of these purposes, they can indeed do much to interpret the school to their parents and to other citizens of the community. Teachers should aid in this development of informed students, and they should welcome opportunities to interpret the school to them. Good public relations is as much the obligation of every pupil and every teacher as it is of every principal and every superintendent.

APPRAISING AND REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS

A traditional practice of the secondary school is to issue reports to parents on pupil achievement. Preparation and issuance of such reports are important administrative and teaching responsibilities. Since the evaluation of pupil learning is an important aspect of teaching, this entire problem will be discussed in Chapter XVII in connection with a consideration of other types of classroom activities. Suffice it to say here that directing, coordinating, and planning such appraisal is an important aspect of the work of the school.

SELECTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Instructional materials include textbooks, reference books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, motion-picture films and other visual materials, auditory aids, laboratory supplies; in fact, anything usable in

carrying forward learning activities. The general trend in good teaching today is to use a much greater variety of instructional materials than was used in years past. The library and the audiovisual aids department are essential parts of any modern secondary school. The selection, purchase, and management of these teaching materials are important administrative responsibilities that teachers should share.

Textbooks, once selected, usually must remain as the adopted text for a period of years, because the expense of providing them is considerable. In some states, textbooks are adopted by a state educational authority and local schools are obligated to conform to the state-approved list. All that teachers and local administrators can do in such situations is to try to influence the state adoptions, and then to adapt the authorized books as best they can to local plans. If textbooks are adopted locally, the school administration should develop plans for teacher-, and if possible parent-, participation in the selection. Textbook adoption is simply one aspect of curriculum development and should follow the same plan of cooperative action. Selection should be based on the contribution that the books can make to the achievement of desired outcomes. Some high schools use multilateral adoptions, so that any one class has the use of several texts. Once adoptions are made, however, teachers should not and usually cannot expect the school to change to a new book at the request of an individual teacher. The cost would be too great. Selection of reference books should follow the same cooperative procedure.

Provisions should be made in the school budget, however, so that inexpensive pamphlets and bulletins may be secured from time to time for use by individual teachers. Especially should this be true in such fields as health education, social studies, science, homemaking, and the like. These publications, if well selected, are most useful to the progressive teacher and comprise excellent sources for study and reference material. Within budget limitations, teachers should have a relatively free hand in requisitioning these publications. Usually custodial care of the materials is the responsibility of the school librarian. The school library should also have available an adequate supply of daily newspapers and current periodicals. Again, teachers should have a voice in selecting such publications.

A great deal of pamphlet and chart material, prepared by commercial firms, governmental agencies, and voluntary organizations, is available without charge to schools. Some schools are reluctant to use materials prepared by commercial firms and voluntary organizations because of the danger of bias or of promotion of private interests to the exclusion of other groups or firms. While there may be some basis for such fear, often these materials are helpful in providing current information or in assisting pupils to a better understanding of a subject.

While many such publications are factual and contain no expression of point of view, even those that are biased may be worth-while in pre-

senting some issue or problem. Pupils are going to be subject to propaganda and pressures from social groups in life outside the school. Would it not be better, then, for them to learn, under the guidance of a skilled teacher, about these pressure groups and what their views are on social, political, and economic questions, and what the counterviews are? In fact, one of the desirable outcomes of secondary education is the development of an attitude of scientific inquiry so that issues may be settled on their merits. The best interests of pupils seem to be safeguarded in the use of such material if two principles are observed: (1) use only material that makes a worth-while contribution to the predetermined objectives of the school, and (2) if the material presents information on only limited aspects of a problem or is biased, be sure also to use material that presents other aspects of the problem and to analyze the bias of all such material.

There has been a tremendous upsurge of interest during recent years in the use of audio and visual materials in the school. These instructional materials are finding a rightful place in our instructional program. If a motion picture, a still film, or a radio transcription will make a worth-while contribution to learning, wisdom certainly dictates its use. Showing a film just because the film is available, or provides a diversion, however, is a waste of time and money. Teachers should select audiovisual aids in terms of their value in furthering the learning under-way in the class. If films are rented, teachers need well-prepared guides and evaluations to aid in selection. If films are purchased, the purchases should be made on the basis of careful evaluation by a committee of teachers, just as in the selection of textbooks.

The determining factor in the selection and use of all instructional materials is the contribution they will make to the growth and development of boys and girls. In fact, a broad basis for learning experiences cannot be provided without an ample and varied supply of good instructional materials of various types.

SUPERVISION

Supervision is an important responsibility of the secondary school principal. Although it is not properly classified as administrative, it is closely related to administration and is a parallel duty of the principal. Our concept of supervision has changed greatly in recent years. Formerly, much of the emphasis was on inspection, conformity, and techniques. The principal saw that teachers conformed to the course of study and carried out the regulations of the school. On occasion, he would attempt to show teachers how to improve their teaching techniques.

Nowadays, the supervisory work of the principal emphasizes the professional growth and stimulation of teachers, the development of cooperative planning, and the exercise of professional leadership in school improvement. Rather than rely mainly on classroom visitation and in-

dividual conferences, principals foster study, discussion, and planning activities by the entire faculty; committee work on projects determined by the faculty; and group-evaluation activities. Thus supervision has become a program of in-service education and cooperative group development.

Such a concept, rather than decreasing the importance of the principalship, increases the responsibilities of the principal for leadership and faculty growth. Of course, there would still be numerous occasions for classroom visitation by the principal and individual teacher conferences, but these would be at the solicitation of the teacher and would seek to help him with problems that he himself raises. Professional growth and improvement become a cooperative venture, not a dutiful carrying out of instructions or a following of techniques developed by a superior.

Administration requires specialized ability and a thoroughgoing knowledge of the science of administration, just as the planning and guidance of the learning activities of boys and girls require specialized abilities on the part of teachers. Both administrators and teachers have their contributions to make to an effective program. The teacher cannot do his best work in a poorly administered school; on the other hand, administration can better fulfill its functions if teachers are highly skilled, able, and well informed on educational matters. Administration and teaching are complementary aspects of a good school, and no sharp lines should separate them. Administration exists solely to facilitate instruction; instruction must be administered to be efficient and effective.

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Chapter 5 discusses the aspects of administration.

X PUPILS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Secondary schools exist to educate the youth of the nation. To do their jobs effectively and to make the schools as functional as possible, educators must know something about their pupils —who they are, what they are like, how they grow and develop, how many of them enter secondary schools, how long they remain, and what needs, interests, and problems they have. This chapter presents evidence on these and related matters. Its purpose is to give teachers an understanding of the pupils with whom they work.

The Youth of America

The pupils of our high schools are a large segment of the young people of the nation. Let us therefore first look at them in general.

In the late 1940's about 2,190,000 young persons, almost equally divided between boys and girls, but with the boys slightly predominating in numbers, reached secondary-school age each year. If we consider the secondary school as encompassing six years (grades seven to twelve), it is evident that about 13,000,000 young persons were potential pupils in the secondary schools of this nation.

In this vast group of boys and girls, 116 of every 1,000 are members of a nonwhite race—Negro, Indian, Japanese, or Chinese. Many still come from homes in which one or both parents were born in a foreign country, although the proportion of these young persons has dropped sharply in the past two decades. Only about 5 of every 1,000 were themselves born in a foreign country.

Slightly more than half of our young people (508 of every 1,000) live in urban areas—cities over 2,500 population; about 1 in 4 (286 of every 1,000) live on farms; and about 1 in 5 (206 of every 1,000) live in small towns and scattered nonfarm homes. Young persons from farms are more likely to come from larger families; because 25 per cent of farm families, compared to 11 per cent of urban families, have 3 or more children under eighteen years of age; for families living in the small towns and scattered homes the comparable figure is 17 per cent. Interestingly, 88 of every 1,000 girls seventeen years of age have already married; only 7 of every 1,000 boys of the same age are married.

In spite of a highly mobile population, compared to many other countries, in 1940 more than three fourths (78 per cent) of our native-

born population were living in the same state in which they were born. Of young persons aged from fourteen to seventeen, inclusive, 90 per cent were, in 1940, even living in the same county or city in which they had lived five years earlier. Figures are not available to show what effects the war has had on migration of the people, but there was some shifting to areas of rapid industrial expansion, so that migration from home counties probably increased slightly from 1940 to 1945.

The parents of our 13,000,000 adolescents engage in a great variety of jobs. Those who work as wage earners may be classified under the following major occupational categories:

	PER CENT
Professional and semiprofessional workers	6.8
Proprietors, managers, and farm operators	17.4
Clerks and salesmen	16.0
Skilled craftsmen and foremen	11.3
Semiskilled craftsmen (operatives, etc.)	18.1
Service workers	12.0
Laborers	16.5

A sizable number of our boys and girls of secondary school age also have jobs or are seeking work. Even in 1940, when some unemployment existed, 5 per cent of the young people fourteen and fifteen years of age and 21 per cent of those sixteen and seventeen years of age were a part of the labor force of the country. During the war years and the period immediately following, these percentages undoubtedly increased somewhat. This situation, however, is a far cry from conditions a half-century and more ago. Then, the young person of sixteen usually had attained adult status; he had a job or was operating a farm or small business; he was standing on his own feet economically and socially, and probably saving money and looking forward to an early marriage.

About 90,000, or approximately 1 per cent, of our young people aged twelve to seventeen are in institutions. A third of this number are in penal institutions, and one fifth in mental institutions. The others are in homes and institutions for the needy or neglected.

Another important factor about these young persons is that they are finding it more difficult to attain adult status than did earlier generations; they constitute a minority group in the population in contrast to the situation in this country seventy-five years ago. In 1870, about half of our entire population was under nineteen years of age; by 1900 only 43 per cent was under nineteen, and by 1940, only 35 per cent. Young persons of today are meeting severe competition for jobs from older, experienced workers; they are a minor factor in the social, political, and economic life of the community. In many of our small towns and rural areas so few are growing up together that even adequate companionship within their age

groups is often lacking. In more ways than one the good old days of the gay young blades of the 1890's seem to be gone forever.

More serious than this failure to gain adult status is the strong indication that young people today are facing greater and greater occupational stratification. That is, they are remaining in the same occupational levels as their fathers, or at least adjacent levels, perhaps without greatly altering their status. Those whose parents are in lower-level jobs too frequently do not have the opportunity and ability to push up the occupational or social ladder either through advanced educational training or financial investment; those whose parents are in managerial-executive-professional jobs not only have greater opportunity to continue their education and training and hence qualify for top-flight jobs but find it easier to step into better positions through family connections and social status. The American dream that any boy could by sheer ability, hard work, and personal drive rise from the humblest circumstances or simplest apprentice job to top positions in the business, financial, or political world may be becoming more and more a dream and less and less a reality. Obviously, tremendous opportunities for self-advancement exist in America today, but the challenge faces us to see that able boys and girls, regardless of their station or their parents' station in life, have equal chances at the opportunities that do exist. [1]

The Pupil Population of Our Secondary Schools

If secondary teachers and administrators are to plan intelligently a program of secondary education for the young of America, it is necessary that we know the important facts about the pupil population of our schools. This section will present evidence on the extent to which young persons attend secondary schools and how far they progress up the educational ladder. In other words, we will try to answer the question: To what extent is secondary education universal in America?

To make these figures as meaningful and practical as possible, the authors will minimize the use of tables with figures running into the millions and will present the facts in terms of a 1,000 persons. We will take a sample of 1,000 American youth and see to what extent they complete a secondary education.

ENROLLMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Young persons of secondary school age in the United States are considered to be those who are from twelve through seventeen years of age; those of twelve through fourteen years of age constitute the potential population of the junior high school, grades seven, eight, and

[1] An interesting book to read in this connection is W. L. Warner, R. J. Havighurst, and M. B. Loeb, *Who Shall be Educated?* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944).

nine; and those who are fifteen through seventeen years of age comprise the potential senior high school population.

This analysis does not assume that all twelve-year-olds, for example, are enrolled in grade seven. Actually, some will be retarded and hence be enrolled in lower grades, while others will be accelerated and be enrolled in the eighth grade or beyond; but the great majority will be in the seventh grade, and the number of twelve-year-olds who are retarded will almost be balanced by eleven-year-olds who are in the seventh grade as accelerated pupils.

Thus the twelve-year-old age group constitutes the best single group to use as a base for calculation for the seventh grade, the thirteen-year-olds as the base for the eighth grade, and so forth until we use the seventeen-year-olds as the base for the twelfth grade. Moreover, in including the twelve- and thirteen-year-olds in our secondary school population, we are not assuming that all are enrolled in a true junior high school—in fact, the majority are not; but educators today agree that the seventh and eighth grades are essentially secondary in nature and that a modern concept of education treats these grades as a part of the true secondary school.

For the school year 1945–1946 the total adolescent population of secondary school age (twelve to seventeen) was estimated to be 13,063,000. Approximately 48 per cent of this group were in the twelve-through-fourteen age group, the junior high school ages; and approximately 52 per cent were in the fifteen-through-seventeen age group, the senior high school ages. Of the 6,237,000 *potential* pupils in the junior high school age group, 6,074,000 were enrolled in grades seven, eight, and nine of the schools of the nation, both public and private; of the 6,826,000 of senior high school age, 4,268,000 were enrolled in grades ten, eleven, and twelve. This means that a total of 10,342,000 young persons were enrolled in our secondary school grades in 1945–1946. The magnitude of our task—and our responsibility—as secondary teachers is certainly revealed by these figures.

To attain this stupendous figure, the American secondary schools have had a phenomenal growth in the past fifty years. Table 10, which gives total enrollments in public and private secondary schools for each census year since 1900 and for 1943–1944 and 1945–1946, traces this sensational expansion of secondary education in the United States. More than eleven times as many students were enrolled in our senior high school grades in 1946 as in 1900. In general terms, it may be said that enrollment in our senior high schools doubled each decade from 1900 to 1930. From 1930 to 1940 the rate of expansion tapered off, and during the years of World War II, the senior high schools actually lost enrollment. In the junior high school grades, the growth in enrollment was also rapid, espe-

TABLE 10

Total Enrollments in All Secondary Schools, 1900–1946

YEAR	ENROLLMENTS IN GRADES 7, 8, 9*	ENROLLMENTS IN GRADES 10, 11, 12	TOTAL
1946	6,074,000	4,268,000	10,342,000
1944	6,081,000	4,097,000	10,178,000
1940	6,855,000	4,946,000	11,801,000
1930	6,200,000	3,025,000	9,225,000
1920	3,999,000	1,489,000	5,488,000
1910	3,011,000	636,000	3,647,000
1900	2,425,000	383,000	2,808,000

* Sixth grade in seven states that had only an eleven-grade system during some or all of these years.
SOURCE: United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems*, for years listed (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office).

cially from 1920 to 1930, but not so rapid as in the senior high school grades. Incidentally, so that a comparable figure would be obtained for the seven states that had only an eleven-year system of public education during part or all of this period, figures for the junior high school years in these states are adjusted to include grade six.

TO WHAT EXTENT DO ADOLESCENTS ATTEND SECONDARY SCHOOL?

Table 11 shows how many of our sample of 1,000 boys and girls of secondary school age actually enrolled in secondary schools for each census year from 1900 through 1940, and for 1944 and 1946. Of each 1,000 youth, twelve through fourteen years of age, 974 attended school in 1945–1946; 872 of these 1,000 youngsters attended public schools, and 102 attended private schools. Only 26 were not in attendance in any kind of regular daytime school. A few of these 26 were incapable of attending a regular school because of physical or mental disabilities, and a very few were in punitive or corrective institutions; most of them simply were not in school, in spite of compulsory school laws.

For the senior high school level, the situation is utterly disturbing. Of each 1,000 adolescents from fifteen through seventeen years of age, only 625 enrolled in any regular secondary school in 1945–1946. Five hundred and sixty-three attended public schools, and 62 private schools; 375 did not attend school. If we believe in an education for all American youth, and surely we all do, who is to be blamed for the fact that over one third of our adolescents do not even enroll in the top three grades of our public schools—the boys and girls, the school, society in general, or all three? Encompassing the entire six secondary school years, 792 of each 1,000 young persons were enrolled in 1945–1946.

Several interesting trends over the years are revealed by the table. Since 1900, the senior high school grades have, of course, gained much

TABLE 11

Number of Each 1,000 Youth of Secondary School Age Enrolled in School, 1900–1946

SCHOOL LEVEL	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940	1944	1946
I. Junior High School (Grades 7, 8, 9)*							
Total Youth, Aged 12–14	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Enrolled in Public School	461	491	581	782	862	814	872
Enrolled in Private School	49	53	53	81	87	65	102
Total Enrolled in School	510	544	634	863	949	879	974
II. Senior High School (Grades 10, 11, 12)							
Total Youth, Aged 15–17	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Enrolled in Public School	63	97	231	399	627	540	563
Enrolled in Private School	21	21	31	36	49	46	62
Total Enrolled in School	84	118	262	435	676	586	625
III. Total Secondary School (Grades 7–12)							
Total Youth, Aged 12–17	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Enrolled in Public School	266	297	415	593	744	677	711
Enrolled in Private School	35	37	42	59	68	55	81
Total Enrolled in School	301	334	457	652	812	732	792

* Sixth grade in seven states that had only an eleven-grade system during some or all of these years.

SOURCES: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population*, Census of the United States for years indicated; estimates provided by Bureau of Census for 1944 and 1946 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office). United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School System*, for years listed (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office).

more rapidly than the junior high school grades in the percentage of students attending school. Only 84 young persons of every 1,000 aged fifteen to seventeen attended the senior high school grades in 1900, whereas the junior high school grades enrolled more than half of the eligible adolescent population at that date. In 1940, we closely approached universal education in the junior high school grades for all boys and girls capable of attending, but the percentage of students enrolled dropped in the war year of 1943–1944. Although private schools—academies, preparatory schools, and parochial schools—gained somewhat in the percentage of students enrolled, the rate of growth was not nearly so high as for the public schools, except in the junior high school grades. In 1900, one of four students in the senior high school grades attended a private school; in 1946 only one of ten attended private school.

The effect of World War II on secondary school enrollments is shown

by Table 11. In 1943–1944 these schools dropped 80 pupils below the number attending in 1939–1940, per 1,000 youth. The armed services took some, but for the most part the boys and girls secured well-paying jobs and voluntarily left school. In 1945–1946, however, young people were returning to school, although the proportion attending senior high school still was not so high as that in 1939–1940.

ATTENDANCE IN EXTENDED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Another element in the situation relative to secondary school attendance should be introduced at this point—enrollment in extended secondary schools. A number of college and university presidents and many other educators have long maintained that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of schooling are essentially secondary in nature. Traditionally, these years have been a part of higher or collegiate education. As long as fifty years ago a few universities tried to distinguish the work of the first two years of their program from that of the last two years—in concept, in purpose, and in approach. The movement has not gained much headway. In the meantime, a new two-year institution in American education known as "the junior college" has developed. Since its origin in the early years of this century, it has had a rapid growth. In 1947, there were 648 such colleges recognized by the American Association of Junior Colleges. These colleges enrolled about 500,000 students.

In function, program, and point of view most of these junior colleges regard themselves as institutions of collegiate rank, even though many of the public junior colleges are controlled and administered by the school district or by a union of school districts. In recent years, though, a number of these colleges have merged with the high school, and are now conceived as an integral part of the program of secondary education in the community, and are so administered and operated. In these communities the program of secondary education comprises eight years—from the seventh through the fourteenth year of schooling.

Most educators believe that secondary education should encompass these eight years, and they foresee in the years ahead a rapid expansion of the common school system to include fourteen grades in addition to nursery and kindergarten education. At present, though, we could not in fairness to our concept of secondary education include as secondary pupils the students enrolled in most of our junior colleges and in lower divisions of colleges and universities. These figures, therefore, have been omitted from Tables 10 and 11; however, if in the years ahead we accept the idea that secondary education should extend through nineteen years of age, we have an additional 4,500,000 or 5,000,000 young persons to add to our potential secondary school population.

This, then, is the situation as to the enrollment of boys and girls in

secondary schools. The next question of importance is: To what extent do they remain in school until graduation?

Continuance of Students in School

Table 12 shows how many of each 1,000 young persons twelve years of age in the census years from 1910 to 1940 remained in school until graduation. To illustrate, of 1,000 youngsters twelve years of age in the school year 1929–1930, 908 were enrolled in the seventh grade;

TABLE 12

Number of Each 1,000 Youth Twelve Years of Age Who Continue in School

SCHOOL PROGRESS	NUMBER SURVIVING PER 1,000 YOUTH AGED TWELVE WHO WERE POTENTIAL ENROLLEES IN GRADE 7 IN YEAR LISTED			
	1909–1910	1919–1920	1929–1930	1939–1940
Youth Twelve Years Old	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Continuing in				
Grade 7	718	767	908	969
Grade 8	654	649	862	919
Grade 9	355	585	789	886
Grade 10	257	410	669	760
Grade 11	187	314	534	566
Grade 12	159	260	463	464
Graduated from High School	147	254	405	427
Entered College			147	
Graduated from College	26	56	74	
Year Graduated from College	1919	1929	1939	

Certain grade distributions are estimated from total enrollments.

Figures are not adjusted for mortality.

SOURCES: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population*, Census of the United States for years indicated (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office). United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School System*, for years listed (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office).

in 1930–1931, 862 continued into the eighth grade, 789 entered the ninth grade in 1931–1932, and 405 graduated from high school in 1934–1935. Of this same 1,000 young persons who were twelve years old in 1929–1930, 147 entered college in 1935–1936, and 74 eventually graduated in 1939. The same interpretation applies to the other years. Figures at this writing are available only through 1945–1946; so the twelve-year olds in 1939–1940 can be checked only to high school graduation.

This table is rather startling. In spite of the great expansion in the student bodies of our secondary schools, less than half of our young people graduate from the twelfth grade. In fact, only 42.7 per cent of those who should have been enrolled in the seventh grade in 1939–1940 graduated from high school. Of course this record is much better than it was for the 1919–1920 group, of whom only 25.4 per cent graduated from high

school, and the 1909–1910 group, of whom only 14.7 per cent graduated. However, the figures all show that we are falling far short of a high school education for all young persons.

In recent years, most adolescents have remained in school until the ninth grade. The largest dropping out of students occurs between the ninth and the eleventh grades. During this period most boys and girls pass beyond the compulsory attendance age; but why do they choose to drop out? Has the secondary school failed them?

This deplorably high mortality of students in secondary schools is confirmed by a number of studies in individual states. For example, the Maryland Youth Survey, made in 1937 by means of personal interviews with a carefully controlled sample of more than 13,000 young persons from sixteen to twenty-four years of age, showed that only 37 per cent who had already left school permanently had completed high school. If it is assumed that all adolescents still in high school will remain until graduation—certainly a liberal assumption—the survey shows that at best less than 46 per cent of Maryland youth will finish high school.[2]

The official New York Regents' inquiry on public education made at about the same date states that "more than three out of every five high school pupils in New York state leave before graduation." [3] Utilizing the same procedure as was used in Table 12, some alarming contrasts among states are found. Of every 1,000 young persons twelve years of age in 1939–1940, California, Utah, and Washington, for example, enrolled practically every child in the seventh grade. Four years later (1943–1944) 772 young persons in California remained in the eleventh grade; in Utah, 629; and in Washington, 769. In contrast, of 1,000 young persons twelve years of age in 1939–1940, Alabama enrolled 747 in the seventh grade during that year; Kentucky, 675; and Mississippi, 759. Four years later, only 270 young persons in Alabama remained in the eleventh grade; in Kentucky, only 266; and in Mississippi, only 272. These figures do not take account of migrations from the state or immigrations into the state; therefore some adjustment will need to be made to account for a loss or gain in youngsters in this age group, but even with this adjustment it is apparent that in some states 6 or 7 of every 10 adolescents graduate from high school; in other states, less than 3 of 10 complete high school.

Table 12 also gives us information about college attendance. Of the 405 young persons per 1,000 who graduated from high school in 1935, only 147 entered college and only 74 eventually graduated from college. This

[2] Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 52–56.

[3] Ruth E. Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938), p. 48. Copyright, 1938, by McGraw-Hill Book Company. Reprinted with permission.

indicates that approximately one third of our high school graduates enter college, and of those who enter about one half graduate. In terms of our total adolescent population, however, only 1 youngster of every 7 who were twelve years of age in 1929–1930 entered college, and only 1 of 14 twelve-year-olds eventually graduated from college. World War II drained the colleges; so attendance from 1942 through 1945 was even more sharply reduced.

Beginning in 1946, however, college enrollments jumped to unprecedented levels, owing in part to the fact that young men who ordinarily would have entered college after graduation from high school were forced to wait until the end of the war, when there was a piling up of students; and in part to the fact that the federal government subsidized veterans of the armed services while they were completing their education. The present situation is admittedly abnormal; but many observers believe that in the years ahead a larger percentage of our high school graduates than ever before will enroll in college.

In summary, we see that of the American boys and girls who are ready for our secondary educational program, practically all will enter the seventh grade, 1 of 10 will drop out before the ninth grade, slightly more than one half will not finish high school, 6 of 7 will not receive any college education, and 13 of 14 will not graduate from college. We indeed fall far short of our goal of an adequate education for all American youth.

Potential Increase in Secondary School Population

The adolescent population of this country will increase tremendously in the late 1950's and the 1960's, with of course the likelihood that secondary schools will experience a major increase in enrollments. This situation arises from an increase of births following 1940. The actual number of births each year dropped slightly below earlier levels during the depression years of the 1930's; then it started upward in 1940, with notable increases in the years following World War II. For example, in 1930 the number of births was 2,204,000; in 1932 it had dropped to a low point of 2,074,000; in 1940 the number had risen gradually to 2,360,000; by 1943 it had increased still further to 2,935,000; and in 1947 a total of 3,600,000 children were born.

Thus almost twice as many children were born in 1947 as in 1932. Considering that children reach secondary school age at twelve years, it is evident now what will happen to secondary school enrollments from the middle 1950's and through the 1960's. Using Bureau of the Census forecasts,[4] it is estimated that the number of adolescents of secondary school age in 1958 will be as follows:

[4] United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Forecasts of the Population of the United States,* 1945–1975 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 56.

AGE	NUMBER
12	3,276,000
13	2,743,000
14	2,804,000
15	2,949,000
16	2,829,000
17	2,538,000
	17,139,000

These figures represent an increase of more than 4,000,000 over the 13,000,000 young persons of secondary school age in the late 1940's. If we assume that 40 per cent of these adolescents will remain in secondary school until graduation, certainly a conservative figure, it is readily apparent that 1,600,000 more persons will graduate from high school in the early 1960's than graduated in 1946. If the birth rate continues to exceed 3,500,000 in the years following 1947, we may expect that in the 1960's our adolescent population of secondary school age will approximate 20,000,000 persons. Even at rates of school attendance that prevailed in the 1945–1946 period, this increase should mean an enrollment in our secondary school grades (seven to twelve) of about 15,000,000 pupils, as compared to the 10,000,000 who attended in 1945–1946. If our schools serve boys and girls better in the years ahead, so that secondary education becomes more fully universal for all adolescents, still greater increases in enrollment are obvious.

Which Young Persons Attend Secondary School?

The foregoing section shows that not nearly all adolescents remain in secondary schools until graduation. Which boys and girls are more likely to drop out of school? What causes young people to leave high school? What effects does this dropping out have on the social and intellectual composition of the student body?

A number of studies on the characteristics of adolescents who discontinue their education have been made, but many have elements of unreliability or are based on questionable assumptions. However, the best evidence available will be reviewed briefly. In reviewing the evidence it becomes apparent that factors associated with elimination from school are interrelated, and that one factor is also indicative of other conditions that underlie withdrawal from school.

FAMILY STATUS A BASIS FOR CONTINUANCE

A notable study of some of the characteristics of boys and girls who do or do not attend secondary schools was made by George Counts for the school years 1919 to 1921. He concluded that there is a

close relationship between parental occupation and the enrollment of the young persons in secondary schools. Children of parents in the professional, managerial, proprietary, and commercial occupations constituted a much greater proportion of the secondary school enrollment in terms of occupational distribution of the general population than did children from laboring groups, such as common laborers, miners, fishermen, lumber workers, and personal and public service workers. For example, the managerial group contributed 400 youth to the secondary school enrollment for each 1,000 men in that occupation, whereas the common-labor group contributed only 17 secondary school pupils per 1,000 men in that occupation. Moreover, Counts found that the difference became more pronounced as the young persons progressed through high school, so that by the senior year the schools had assumed an even more pronounced class structure, with children from the laboring groups practically disappearing from high school.[5]

Investigators for a national survey of secondary education repeated Counts' study eleven years later (1930–1931) in two of the large cities he used, with generally similar results. They found an increase in attendance from all groups, but the occupational disparities were still found. The managerial, professional, proprietary, and commercial groups contributed over twice as many pupils to the secondary schools in proportion to numbers as did the laboring groups.[6]

The comprehensive Maryland Youth Survey presents even stronger evidence as to the selective character of secondary education. Published in 1938, this survey of 13,500 adolescents carefully selected as a sample of the young people of the entire state shows the direct relationship of the father's occupation to continuance in secondary school. The findings are presented in Table 13. This study shows that a young person whose father is in the upper brackets of the occupational ladder is approximately three times as likely to continue his education beyond the eighth grade as is a youngster whose father is in one of the unskilled labor groups.

Moreover, the study gives evidence as to the amount of high school education secured by the adolescents whose fathers were in five of the occupational groups. The findings confirm Counts' study of fifteen years earlier: not only that more children from the higher occupational groups enter secondary school but that they continue longer in school. Less than half of the children of unskilled laborers who succeeded in entering high school remained until graduation, whereas four of five of the children of professional-technical men remained until graduation.[7]

[5] George S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922).

[6] Grayson Kefanver, Victor Noll, and Elwood Drake, *The Secondary School Population* (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 4, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1933).

[7] Bell, *op. cit.*

An American Youth Commission study in Pennsylvania,[8] a National

TABLE 13

Number of Youth per 1,000 in Each Occupation Group Who Continue Their Education beyond the Eighth Grade, Classified According to Fathers' Occupations

FATHER'S OCCUPATION	TOTAL GROUP	NUMBER WHO CONTINUED EDUCATION BEYOND EIGHTH GRADE	NUMBER WHO GRADUATED FROM HIGH SCHOOL
Professional-technical	1,000	924	777
Office	1,000	889	
Sales	1,000	858	609
Managerial	1,000	838	
Skilled	1,000	675	358
Domestic-personal	1,000	609	
Semiskilled	1,000	570	
Farms: Owners and Tenants	1,000	512	341
Unskilled	1,000	339	129
Farm Laborer	1,000	137	

SOURCE: Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938).

Health Survey,[9] and the New York Regents' Survey[10] all give additional evidence that attendance in secondary schools is higher among families from the higher economic and social stratums of the population. The cultural anthropologists, who are contributing much to our understanding of the social basis of education, have also presented evidence to show that the American high school is selective in terms of social groupings.[11]

Undoubtedly, an important factor associated with school attendance is the general cultural atmosphere of the home. This is directly related to economic level, but it should be considered as an aspect of the problem. If the child is encouraged by parents to continue his education, if his brothers and sisters have completed high school, if the entire tone of the home stimulates and fosters educational development, he will be more likely to enroll in secondary school than will the youngster who is reared in the opposite type of home.

INTELLIGENCE AS A SELECTIVE FACTOR

Intellectual ability is to some degree at least a factor in determining continuance in the secondary school. Obviously young persons of very low intelligence, such as the feeble-minded, are not in secondary

[8] Harlan Updegraff, *Inventory of Youth in Pennsylvania* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1936). Mimeographed.

[9] Bernard D. Karpinos and Herbert J. Sommers, "Educational Attainment of Urban Youth in Various Income Classes," *Elementary School Journal*, **42**:677–687 and 766–774 (May, June), 1942.

[10] Eckert and Marshall, *op. cit.*, pp. 70–82.

[11] See especially Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb, *op. cit.*

schools. However, beyond showing that boys and girls of borderline intelligence do not continue in secondary school, the evidence is not too clear. Most persons assume that many of the adolescents who drop out of secondary school do so because they lack intellectual ability. Evidence from various studies indicates that intellectual ability is to some extent a factor in explaining school elimination but not nearly as important as many educators believe. Certainly, it is only one among several factors that account for school drop-outs, and in and of itself it probably constitutes the basis for only a small part of the elimination. To make up for youngsters of low intellectual ability who drop out of school, there are others of equally low intellectual ability who remain in school, and for the bright boys and girls who remain in school there are others of comparable intellectual ability who drop out, although probably direct proportions do not apply in either case.

Updegraff[12] found in the Pennsylvania study that among children with superior intelligence—those with an intelligence quotient (I.Q.) of 110 or better on the test used—only 72 per cent of those who came from families with below-average socioeconomic status finished high school, whereas 93 per cent of the same intellectual group who came from families with an above-average socioeconomic status graduated from high school.

The New York Regents' Study compares the intellectual ability, as measured by a group mental-ability test, of the students who withdrew from secondary school prior to graduation with that of those who graduated. The survey found that 85 per cent of those who withdrew had an intelligence score below the average of the graduating students. The investigators warn, however, that

> While very pronounced differences appear in average performance, it is also true that there is considerable overlapping in ability among pupils who leave school at different points. Many graduates are inferior to withdrawing pupils in their demonstrated capacity for school tasks; some actually rate among the lowest 10 per cent of all pupils tested, regardless of grade level. . . . The top 10 per cent of withdrawing pupils are easily the peers of the average graduate and of a substantial number of pupils who have completed work at the post-graduate level.[13]

During World War II, the Army administered a classification test, designed to measure intellectual capacity, to approximately 10,000,000 men. On the basis of the evidence presented by Walter V. Bingham, chief psychologist for the classification service of the Army, it can be concluded that about 1,000,000 of the 3,000,000 men who ranked in the two upper intelligence brackets—high intellectual capacity—had not even

[12] Updegraff, *op. cit.*
[13] Eckert and Marshall, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

completed high school.[14] Thus for every two bright young adolescents who graduate from high school, another, comparable in intellectual capacity, dropped out of school some time prior to high school graduation.

EFFECT OF INCREASED ENROLLMENT ON INTELLECTUAL LEVEL

Another facet of this situation is the effect that the great expansion in secondary school enrollment has had on the general intellectual level of the student body. Many teachers have assumed that high school pupils of several decades ago were drawn largely from the most able adolescents, and that the great influx of pupils in the past thirty years or so has brought into the high schools a much larger proportion of pupils of average or below-average ability, with the result that the general intellectual level of secondary youth today is lower than that of earlier decades. As a matter of fact, a number of surveys and studies have purported to confirm this observation. However, in a critical evaluation of the evidence on this matter, Finch reveals many inadequacies in these studies. He states that ". . . the high schools formerly retained pupils who were, on the average, somewhat superior to the remainder of contemporary youth in academic ability, but this superiority was far less than was commonly believed." [15] He then shows on the basis of numerous studies reported between 1916 and 1942 that the average intelligence quotient of the high school population has not declined during this period; rather, that the trend is slightly upward. Moreover, when the same test of intelligence was given about 30 years later in the same high school there proved to be no loss in average mental ability with increased enrollments, and what change there was tended to be upward. Finch concludes:

There is relatively good evidence indicating that selection has favored to some extent the retention of mentally superior students and that as enrollments multiplied this selection became somewhat less favorable. From the findings of this study, it would appear that the effects of less favorable selection among more recent high school pupils with respect to measured mental ability have been fully overcome by compensating factors. It is suggested that these factors include both (a) more effective education, particularly in the elementary schools, and (b) more favorable out-of-school environment. An unknown portion of the apparent gains may be due to increasing "test-wiseness," as this factor has probably operated in some cases.[16]

[14] Walter V. Bingham, "Inequalities in Adult Capacity—From Military Data," *Science*, **104**:147–152 (August 16), 1946.

[15] F. H. Finch, *Enrollment Increases and Changes in the Mental Level of the High-School Population* (Applied Psychology Monographs No. 10; Stanford, Calif.: University Press, 1946), p. 70.

[16] Reprinted from *Enrollment Increases and Changes in the Mental Level of the High-School Population*, by F. H. Finch (Applied Psychology Monograph No. 10), with the permission of the author and of the publishers, Stanford University Press.

In summary, intellectual ability does operate as a selective factor in determining school attendance to the extent that fewer youngsters from the lower levels of ability attend secondary schools than attend from the average and above-average levels. This factor in and of itself, though, is not so important in effecting elimination as are other factors, nor is it as important as many persons presume it to be. In fact, the average level of ability of high school pupils has not deteriorated with expanded enrollments.

OTHER FACTORS RELATED TO CONTINUANCE IN SCHOOL

Studies show the relation of other factors to the likelihood of boys' or girls' continuing with their secondary education. Many of these factors are interrelated and may be evidences of the same basic conditions. Sex has been shown to be a factor in continuance in school, for more girls than boys remain in secondary schools. The Maryland Youth Survey shows that 67 per cent of the girls, but only 55 per cent of the boys, continued beyond the eighth grade. Thirty per cent of the boys graduated from high school, while 44 per cent of the girls graduated.[17] The National Health Survey shows that a slightly higher percentage of urban girls graduated from high school than did urban boys.[18]

There is a great difference in school attendance between members of the white race and members of the Negro race. The Maryland Youth Survey found that 67 per cent of white persons, but only 32 per cent of Negro persons, went beyond the eighth grade.[19] Utilizing census data and figures from the biennial survey of education for 1940, we find, for example, that in three southern states enrollment of white pupils aged twelve through seventeen in the public secondary schools—grades seven through twelve—per 1,000, exceeded the enrollment of Negroes. The figures are given in Table 14.

The impact of the occupational status of the family on secondary

TABLE 14

Enrollment per 1,000 of White and Negro Youth in Public Schools, Grades 7 to 12, 1940, Selected States

	WHITE		NEGRO	
STATE	TOTAL	ENROLLED IN SCHOOL	TOTAL	ENROLLED IN SCHOOL
Alabama	1,000	645	1,000	333
Mississippi	1,000	733	1,000	333
Tennessee	1,000	605	1,000	481

SOURCES: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population*, Sixteenth Census of the United States, 1940 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1943). United States Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939–1940* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1944).

[17] Bell, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

[18] Karpinos and Sommers, *op. cit.*

[19] Bell, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

school attendance has already been discussed. Children of farm families, as was shown by the Maryland Youth Survey, do not continue in secondary school as extensively as do children of certain other occupational groups. Related evidence on this situation is obtained by comparing school attendance per 1,000 boys and girls of the urban and rural population. The 1940 census gathered information on school enrollment in relation to residence. These figures were obtained by census takers and simply recorded, with no indication of whether the person was enrolled in elementary, secondary, or higher schools. The number per 1,000 of each age group in the United States who were enrolled in school from urban, rural nonfarm, and rural farm areas is shown in Table 15. "Urban" is applied to cities and incorporated places of 2,500 or more population; rural nonfarm population includes persons living in small towns, villages, and in scattered homes not on farms. The table demonstrates clearly that rural adolescents in general do not attain as high a level of education as do urban adolescents.

Illness and poor health are minor factors in elimination from school, and size of family has also been shown to be related to the amount of schooling received. The interrelationship of most of these factors is apparent.

COST OF A HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

The fact that level of schooling attained is closely related to the occupational level of the family raises the question of whether secondary education is effectively free. Have financial barriers been erected that exclude some youth?

TABLE 15

Enrollment in School per 1,000 of Urban and Rural Youth of Each Age Group, 1940

AGE	URBAN	RURAL NONFARM	RURAL FARM
12	974	958	919
13	971	951	907
14	960	929	861
15	934	873	774
16	836	750	638
17	675	599	494

SOURCE: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Population*, Sixteenth Census of the United States (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1943).

A high school education is, in fact, not free. A major element in the cost of attending school is the loss of real wages. Assuming that a young person could obtain a job or could engage in productive work on his father's farm or in his business, the loss in wages that could be earned during the period of high school attendance would be sizable, particularly for the older person in senior high school.

In addition to loss of wages, pupils must pay out cash to attend high school. A nation-wide study of the actual cash expenditures of boys and

girls attending high school was made during the school year 1942–1943. The sample included 19,000 pupils enrolled in 134 schools. The study showed that the average annual cash expenditures of these youngsters was $81.96. Girls spent more than boys, upperclassmen more than freshmen and sophomores, and students in large city high schools more than those in the smaller town systems. Expenditures varied greatly from school to school, even among schools of comparable size. The money was spent for such items as clothing, lunches, school books and supplies, admission to school activities, transportation, fees, school publications, and the like.[20] As a part of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, 80 schools in that state made a detailed study of the "hidden" tuition costs for taking various high school courses. The reports show that costs to the pupils for taking subjects varied from nothing in some schools to as high as $100.00 in girls' practical arts courses.[21]

Two other extensive studies show even higher cash expenditures by high school students.[22] Although it might be argued that young persons not in school would be faced with some of the same expenses, they would not have to make these expenditures at the particular time unless they had the money readily available. Some of the expenditures are clearly functions of school attendance. The burden of this cash outlay on low-income families, especially when several children are attending school at the same time, is apparent. Certainly it would be a factor in determining enrollment in secondary schools.

EDUCATIONAL DETERMINISM

This section has shown that children of the laboring and lower-income classes are less likely to finish high school than are children of professional and business and higher-income classes; that youngsters with a lower level of mental ability as measured by current aptitude tests are less likely than more capable youngsters to remain until graduation; that Negro children in general do not receive as much formal education as do white children; and that rural boys and girls drop out of school in larger numbers than do urban boys and girls. Clearly, the great American high school does not yet serve all American youth.

If we accept the point of view of Chapter IV that secondary education is essential to the perpetuation and improvement of our democratic

[20] Paul B. Jacobson, "The Cost of Attending High School," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 119, **28**:3–28 (January), 1944.

[21] Harold C. Hand, "For Whom Are High Schools Designed?" *Educational Leadership,* **6**:359–365 (March), 1949.

[22] Harold C. Hand, "America Must Have Genuinely Democratic High School," Stephen M. Corey and others, *General Education in the American High School* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman, & Company, 1942), pp. 17–20.

Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, *Indiana Boys and Girls Report Their Cash Expenditures, Income, and Hours of Employment while Attending High School* (Research Bulletin No. 9; Indianapolis: The Department, 1944).

way of life and that all boys and girls should have the opportunity to develop their abilities to the maximum consistent with the common good for all, the challenge to American society is to make secondary education truly universal. This means not only that we must extend and equalize educational opportunities but that we must expand our program of education for adolescents so that it will better serve the needs, abilities, and interests of all the boys and girls of the nation, who are our greatest resource in this abundantly rich nation.

At present, the boys and girls for whom a secondary education would open widest the door of opportunity—culturally, economically, and socially—are the very adolescents who do not remain in secondary schools. All too frequently a vicious circle operates to the detriment of these less privileged children: (1) the general vocational level of the father is directly related to the level of schooling he attained; (2) occupational level largely determines the father's income and sociocultural level; (3) income and sociocultural level determines in part at least the amount of schooling his children will receive; (4) the amount of schooling strongly influences the vocational opportunities of the children; (5) and the occupational level of the children affects, in turn, the educational attainments of their children, and so on and on.

Obviously, there is still much freedom of social and economic mobility in this country, and on many, many occasions this vicious cycle is broken. Undoubtedly, each new generation of youngsters of the less privileged groups, by and large, moves up the educational ladder a few steps. The children obtain more schooling than the father; and their children still more schooling. Many a grandfather living today, who never attended high school but who took great pride in the graduation of his children from high school a quarter of a century ago, now takes equally great pride in the graduation of his grandchildren from college.

The sort of educational determinism just cited is common enough to cause great concern among those who believe in equal opportunity for all youngsters. Also, it is apparent that the boys and girls who are least able to achieve success in the traditional school program are being thrust into adult life at an earlier stage and with less personal resources than are the more capable. The youngster who shows the least ability to learn, to acquire knowledge, and to think his problems through is the very one who is being forced by the school to do so on his own, without the help and guidance of teachers, and with a smaller fund of knowledge and understandings. The adolescent who needs most help from the school is receiving the least.

The Development of Adolescents

Secondary school pupils in the main are adolescents; that is, they are in the transition period between childhood and adulthood. During

this period far-reaching changes occur—changes of a physical, mental, emotional, and social nature. Adolescence begins with the onset of puberty and continues until physical and mental maturity is attained. The period varies with individual children, but ranges from about the age of ten, when a small proportion of girls reach puberty, to about the age of twenty, when the last boy attains maturity. This section will review briefly some of the salient facts about development during the period of adolescence; these facts will enable teachers better to understand the boys and girls with whom they work. A word of warning: each adolescent develops at his own characteristic rate and in his own characteristic way. A discussion of general developmental trends does not describe accurately the individual or his rate of change.

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

The attainment of sexual maturity is the most important aspect of physical development, and this is accompanied by many physiological changes. Girls on the average reach puberty about one and one-half years earlier than boys; for girls the age ranges from about ten to eighteen, and for boys from about twelve to twenty. A rapid spurt in physical growth occurs early in this period. The important thing for teachers to keep in mind is that this spurt occurs at different ages for different individuals, and follows different patterns.

The variation in physical development produces one of the great concerns of adolescents: Am I developing normally? A youngster whose development is delayed beyond that of many of his peers may become emotionally disturbed over his assumed abnormality, and serious behavior problems may result. In due time, however, he too will enjoy his growth spurt, and he will again attain stature with his associates.

Accompanying these physiological changes must come psychological adjustments. The youngster must learn to look at himself differently; he must adjust to changes in adult attitudes toward himself because of these bodily changes. He becomes aware of his body, of his personal appearance, of his grooming. One of his adolescent tasks is to learn to accept his body—his size, his shape, his bodily structure.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

Mental development, in the sense of increased capacity to learn as distinguished from increase in the stock of knowledge, continues during adolescence. The youngster gains in his ability to acquire knowledge, in his power to learn. Just how long this expansion in intellectual ability continues no one knows for certain, but it continues throughout the greater part of adolescence, although the rate of growth slows down considerably during the latter years of adolescence. Similarly, no one knows for certain just when the growth in intellectual power ceases, but two

authorities, reviewing numerous research studies, conclude that the limit of growth is not earlier than eighteen or twenty years of age.[23] As is true for physical growth, there is great variation, not only in mental ability but also in the rate of development among individuals. There is some evidence that the more stimulative the cultural environment of the adolescent, the more extended will be his period of mental development.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Adolescence is also a period of marked social change. In fact, for many boys and girls the attainment of social maturity is a much more difficult adjustment than is that of physical maturation. It is more subtle and complex and is much more dependent on the aggressive action of the individual. The youngster will attain physical growth regardless of his own actions, although it is true that he in some measure can determine the way and the extent of growth. Social adjustment, however, must in large part be learned; hence it is dependent on the experience pattern of the individual.

The youngster has new adjustments to make in his relations to his own age group and to adults, particularly parents. True, as a child he had to establish relationships to these same groups, but as an adolescent he must learn new relationships and establish new adjustments that at times indeed test his ingenuity as well as his emotional stability. By encouraging group activities where members of both sexes may work together on common problems and interests, as shown in Plate 16, the school can help young adolescents acquire good attitudes and behavior patterns in developing these new relationships.

The adolescent's relations to his parents are characterized by his efforts to emancipate himself from dependence on the family. He seeks in an aggressive fashion to escape from the submissive status he occupied as a child. He wants to stand on his own feet, to assume direction of his activities, to decide things for himself. This emergence of a challenge to parental domination and control, if not understood and accepted by parents, leads to bitter conflicts. Youngsters often pursue aggressive types of behavior just to assert this independence, to test out their own ability for self-direction, to prove to both their parents and their own age group that they are in fact becoming men and women. In a changing social pattern such as characterizes modern societies, these conflicts between the adult and the adolescent may become even sharper, because the youngster feels that his parents hold to "old-fashioned" standards of conduct and types of behavior that are no longer fashionable. Children from families with foreign backgrounds frequently have this attitude.

[23] Harold E. Jones and Herbert S. Conrad, "Mental Development in Adolescence," in *Adolescence* (Part I, Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: University of Chicago, 1944), p. 158.

Throughout this period of self-assertion, however, the adolescent still looks toward his home for security and affection. He wants and must have someone in whom to confide when in doubt, some refuge when the difficulties of the world become too overwhelming, someone to reassure him that he is loved, that he is wanted, that he belongs. On one hand, then, parents should encourage independence and the exercise of self-direction on the part of the youngster; on the other hand, they should be ready and willing to protect him, to comfort him, to help him over his difficulties, and, especially with the young adolescent, to let him become a child again on occasion. Some parents, unfortunately, through continued domination and control and oversolicitude, never permit their children to cut the psychological apron strings, and the youngster grows to maturity as a dependent, submissive person, hardly the master of his own destiny. Such a person finds it difficult to take his place in the world, to assume his proper adult status.

The emotional climate of the home profoundly affects the behavior of the youngster in the world at large. His aggressive conduct in the school or in a social group may be his subtle psychological protest against bickering, conflict, and misunderstanding in the home. Instability of emotions may be evidence of a lack of security and affection in his home environment. Studies have shown that delinquency is higher among adolescents who have not had a strong filial relationship in the home, among adolescents who do not enjoy the admiration and approval of their parents.

Also in his relationships with other adults, the adolescent needs to make new adjustments. Adult society expects more of him, particularly if his physical development is early and rapid. He may be held accountable for a level of social maturity for which he is not yet ready. Adults expect him to accept responsibility, to exercise self-direction, to make decisions, to use common sense—traits he may have had little opportunity to develop. Adults begin to talk to him in a man-to-man fashion. The adolescent often joins in adult groups and participates with them in physical and recreational activities. To prove his adult status he may overtax himself and take physical risks that older persons would forego.

Adjustment to the peer culture of his own group is, however, also one of the basic aspects of the social development of the adolescent. One of his major developmental tasks is that of establishing satisfactory relations with his age mates of both sexes. The age group becomes all-important. Much of his behavior in the home, school, and in the world at large is a reflection of his efforts to establish status in his group. Conformity to the group pattern in speech, appearance, type of clothes, standards, values, and behavior is predominantly a characteristic of the adolescent. For him, highest authority resides in the peer group, and group sanction becomes a bulwark in the battle against parental domination. Value patterns of the adolescent group change along with changed behavior as

adolescents advance through the growth cycle. Thus it is difficult for young persons to maintain status with the contemporary group. The adolescent who adjusts best at any one stage is the one who can best clarify, or give expression to, these changing patterns of adolescent values.

A large phase of the developmental tasks of adolescents in relation to their peer culture is establishing satisfactory relations with the opposite

PLATE 16

LEARNING NEW RELATIONSHIPS WITH AGE MATES. Because of their physical, emotional, and social development adolescents need to learn new behavior patterns as they work and play with age mates of the same and opposite sex. (Courtesy of the Louisville, Nebraska, Public Schools)

sex. Prompted by his biological development, the adolescent becomes much more interested in the opposite sex, and he begins actively to seek the companionship of its members. These adolescent boys and girls experiment with various types of behavior in trying to reach a basis for companionship. Gradually most of them achieve satisfactory relationships. The complementary roles of the two sexes must come to be understood.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT

Much of this book is devoted to a discussion of the kind of educational program that is needed for the proper development of boys

and girls. At this point, though, it is desirable to emphasize what implications for curriculum planning the main characteristics of adolescent development have.

1. The foremost implication, of course, is that the secondary school curriculum should be planned in terms of the physical, mental, social, and emotional development of boys and girls. The experiences provided by the school in the classroom, laboratory, shop, and gymnasium, on the playing field; and through the activities of the school should be consistent with the stages of development of the participants.

2. The secondary school must concern itself with all phases of adolescent development. It should not center its attention on the expansion of the pupils' stock of knowledge to the exclusion of physical and social development. Experiences should be chosen on the basis of their contribution to the all-round development of boys and girls, rather than in terms of the logical demands of specialized subject matter.

3. Because adolescents develop at different rates and in different ways, the school should strive to give attention to the needs of each as an individual and to help him with his unique problems of development.

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XI THE CURRICULUM AND PROGRAMS OF STUDIES

What Is the Curriculum?

Although "curriculum" has had several different meanings in education, all more or less related to the Latin translation of "a race course," probably most pupils and teachers have thought of it as the subjects offered each school year, that is, the "program of studies." Others would narrow the definition to include the content of only a specific subject; in this sense there would be an "English curriculum," a "mathematics curriculum," and so forth. As the school program has come to include many experiences, such as clubs, assemblies, and sports, that are unlike subjects but may be equally valuable, the curriculum has increasingly been considered to include all activities provided or guided by the school. That is, the curriculum is the life and program of the school. The curriculum of a particular school may include:

All classroom activities, usually organized around subjects (the program of studies)
All club programs
All student organizations
All school athletics, intramural or interscholastic
All assembly programs
All publications
All social affairs
All trips sponsored by the school
All counseling services
All health services
All other activities and services provided by the school

From the point of view of a particular adolescent, his curriculum includes all activities that are provided or he is guided to by the school. The curriculum for a sample week of one tenth-grade pupil, for example, is shown on page 256.

This schedule does not show some of the other experiences also provided by the school: informal relationships between members of the same and opposite sexes in the classrooms, corridors, and auditorium; home work; movies, radio programs, and other out-of-school learning ex-

HOUR	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:45– 9:00	Home Room				
9:05–10:00	World History				
10:05–11:00	English I				
11:05–12:00	Library or Study Hall				
12:00–12:45	Lunch (School Cafeteria)				
12:50– 1:45	School Paper	Student Council	Assembly	School Paper	
1:50– 2:45	Biology				
2:50– 3:45	Algebra				
3:50– 5:00	Football Practice (Fall)				
Evening	X	X	X	Student Dance	Football Game (Fall)

periences to which students are guided by their teachers; excursions that may be taken by the class or other groups within the school day; and conferences with teachers, counselors, and the principal. Neither does it show less desirable experiences that adolescents have in, or as an indirect result of, school: failure in school subjects; special tutoring to avoid or adjust for failure; truancy, and eventual dropping out of school; and unsatisfactory behavior resulting in difficulties at school and even in the community. All these experiences may also be included in or attributed to the curriculum of a high school pupil.

What Does the Program of Studies Usually Include?

Although the example given here shows that this youth's curriculum included such diverse activities as world history, student council, and social dancing, it is probable that in planning his curriculum he gave most thought to the four subjects for which he was enrolled. Why did he take these four? Why just four?

"CURRICULA"

A first factor that would ordinarily influence a young person's choice of studies is that of his future interests. The small high school may be unable to offer any kind of subject other than those of so-called "general" purposes, but the larger schools frequently offer optional "courses" or "curricula" providing more or less specified sequences designed for different future interests. For example, the senior high school (grades ten to twelve) of 1,500 students in which this student was enrolled offered six courses, identified as follows in the printed student folder, with the percentage of the student body recently enrolled in each course shown in parentheses:

General Course (40 per cent).—"Leads to Graduation but Not to College"

College-Preparatory Course (37 per cent).—"Leads to College"
Commercial Course (9 per cent).—"Leads to Business: Stenography, Bookkeeping, and Secretarial Work"
Industrial Preparatory Work (7 per cent).—"Prepares for Entrance into Industrial Shops"
General Clerical Course (4 per cent).—"Leads to General Clerical Work"
Practical Arts Course (3 per cent).—"Prepares for the Art of Homemaking"

Students who choose any of these courses other than the general or the college preparatory have little choice thereafter as to specific subjects, as these are prescribed with limited options. The general course offers more possibilities of elections than the college preparatory and indeed is the only course that does not assume the pupil's career after graduation. For this reason, it is usually chosen by the largest number of tenth-graders, although changes of courses are possible thereafter. However, the general course is essentially a college-preparatory one, since its required subjects ordinarily satisfy the entrance requirements of most colleges and universities. Hence in this school 77 per cent of the students were pursuing college-preparatory courses and only 23 per cent vocational courses, although less than 20 per cent of the graduates annually enter college. The general course of the large high school is *the* course of the small high school, except, of course, that the smaller the school, the fewer the electives, and usually the more academic or college preparatory its subjects, since the college-preparatory function has traditionally been served first.

UNITS; REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE SUBJECTS; MAJORS AND MINORS

Certain courses (subjects) are required in all courses (curricula). These are indicated in the following total program of studies offered by this typical senior high school (grades ten to twelve) of 1,500 students (each subject for one year or "unit" unless otherwise indicated):

English	I (required), II, and III; Business English; Journalism (½); Speech (½); Dramatics (½); Debate (½). 2 units required
Social Studies	World History; American History (required); Economics (½); Sociology (½); Advanced Civics (½) (required); Economic Geography (½); Commercial Law (½). 1½ units required
Mathematics	Advanced Algebra; Trigonometry (½); Geometry; Business Arithmetic; General Mathematics
Science	Biology; Chemistry; Physics
Home Economics	Foods; Clothing; Consumer Education; Interior Decorating (½); Nutrition; Household Care (½); Cafeteria
Foreign Languages	Latin I and II; French I and II; Spanish I and II

Commercial	Typewriting I, II, and III; Shorthand I and II; Office Practice; Typewriting (personal use); Bookkeeping I and II; Retailing I and II
Industrial Arts	Mechanical Drawing I and II; Woodwork I and II; Machine Shop I and II; Printing I, II, III; General Metals I, II, and III; Auto Mechanics
Music	Orchestra I, II, and III; Band I, II, and III; Chorus I, II, and III
Art	Art I, II, and III
Physical Education	Physical Education (Boys) I, II, and III; Physical Education (Girls) I, II, and III. 3 units required (in addition to 12 academic units)

This school requires that its students complete twelve units (sixteen if the four in grade nine are included) in addition to physical education, during the three senior high years. A unit is the standard measure in secondary education for determining credit for transfer, graduation, and college entrance. It is uniformly defined as originally specified by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching: a course of five periods weekly throughout the academic year. Graduation requirements have generally stipulated sixteen units for grades nine to twelve, that is, four units a year; and accrediting agencies have commonly frowned on any practice of allowing students to make more than four units a year.

High schools ordinarily set up certain courses as required and the remainder as elective, although as has already been noted, the number of electives may be limited within a particular "course," such as industrial preparatory. In the aforementioned program of studies only three and one-half units are required in grades ten to twelve in all courses: two in English, and one and one-half in social studies. However, there has been a further requirement in this school that each graduate must have completed two *majors* (a "major" is at least three units, grades nine to twelve, in the same department) and two *minors* (at least two units, grades nine to twelve, in the same department). In view of the requirements in English (three units, grades nine to twelve) and social studies (two and one-half units, grades nine to twelve), the choice is really among minors, and this choice is further restricted by the ninth-grade required mathematics. If a pupil elects to major in social studies and minor in mathematics, he has eight elective units, grades nine to twelve. If his majors do not include social studies and his minors mathematics, his number of free electives is reduced. Thus the system of courses, majors and minors and other requirements permits some election of fields of concentration but restricts the number of independent elective courses. Actually, the typical college requirement of nine or ten prescribed units is usually reflected

in the average young person's curriculum. If he is enrolled in one of our many small high schools even more units may be prescribed.

ENROLLMENTS

Another way of analyzing the high school curriculum is to study enrollments by departments. In a recent year the enrollments in the school that supplied the program of studies we have been considering were as follows:

English	1,391
Social Studies	999
Industrial Arts	749
Mathematics	736
Commercial Subjects	711
Science	589
Home Economics	443
Music	392
Languages	341
Art	111

These enrollments are, of course, greatly influenced by the various requirements previously reviewed. Obviously, these requirements make English and social studies the most common courses in high school.

Some rather interesting comparisons of enrollments are provided by Table 16. Although the data are not wholly comparable, they do permit several general observations:

TABLE 16

Comparison of Subject Enrollments in a Large Urban High School (Michigan) and in Smaller High Schools (Nebraska)

	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL MEMBERSHIP ENROLLED	
SUBJECT	BATTLE CREEK, MICHIGAN, HIGH SCHOOL; 1,492 PUPILS; 1946–1947	512 NEBRASKA HIGH SCHOOLS WITH ENROLLMENTS OF LESS THAN 500 PUPILS EACH; 46,944 PUPILS; 1944–1945
English	93	96
Social Studies	67	77
Industrial Arts	50	9
Vocational Agriculture		8
Mathematics	49	60
Commercial Subjects	48	56
Science	40	52
Fine Arts	34	44
Home Economics	30	14
Languages	23	15

SOURCE: Data for Nebraska taken from "Nebraska High School Curriculum Study," University of Nebraska *News*, November 28, 1945.

1. The general pattern of enrollments in the academic subjects does not differ greatly in a large urban school in Michigan and in small (predominantly rural) high schools in Nebraska.

2. The enrollment in nonacademic subjects other than commercial is relatively slight in the small schools in Nebraska (and similar data from other small schools indicate similar conclusions) and considerably smaller than in the large urban school in Michigan.

3. So far as these data are typical, the subjects in which most pupils are enrolled in both large urban and small rural schools are English, social studies, mathematics, science, and commercial subjects.

Comparison of these data with those for other localities and for the country as a whole[1] leads to the conclusion that the pattern of the subject curriculum is firmly entrenched in the United States. Table 17 gives a further comparison with a large California high school and also shows the changes in enrollment over almost fifty years. Although enrollments in languages have decreased in recent decades and those in commercial subjects have increased (but decreased at Berkeley since the 1931–1932 depression year), English, social studies, mathematics, and science maintain their popularity in enrollment in all schools. Whatever factors operate to determine the program of studies seem to be somewhat independent of locality and size of school.

PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE

To complete the analysis of course offerings and requirements, consideration should be given to the subject curriculum before and after the senior high school. In grades seven and eight, which are sometimes a part of the elementary school and sometimes a part of the junior high school, the program is fairly well standardized throughout the United States to consist of social studies, language arts, science and arithmetic, with some provision, especially in junior high situations, for home economics, industrial arts, art, music, and physical education. As shown in this example, the unit system begins in grade nine, since the 8–4 organization is traditional, and here the choices come as to electives, majors, and minors. Commonly English and some form of civics (social studies) are required in grade nine, with electives possible among algebra, general mathematics, general science, home economics, industrial arts, typing, music, and art courses.

In school systems that have adopted a 6–4–4 organization plan, the

[1] See, for example and contrast, Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, *A Proposed Design for Secondary Education in Iowa* (Des Moines: The Department, 1947), pp. 56–57 (Iowa data); H. C. Olinger, "What Others Think of Us," *Modern Language Journal*, **29**:659–664 (December), 1945 (Massachusetts data); and Carl G. F. Franzen, "The 1946–47 Enrollments in North Central Association High Schools in Indiana," *North Central Association Quarterly*, **22**:432–439 (April), 1948. Also see Carl A. Jessen, *Offerings and Registrations in High School Subjects, 1933–34* (United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1938 no. 6; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938).

TABLE 17

Enrollment by Departments in Berkeley, California, High School

SUBJECT	1899–1900 290 PUPILS		1915–1916 916 PUPILS		1931–1932 2,633 PUPILS		1947–1948 2,382 PUPILS	
	PUPILS	PER CENT	PUPILS	PER CENT	PUPILS	PER CENT	PUPILS	PER CENT
Languages	57	19.6	17	1.9	213	8.1	184	7.7
Greek	180	62.1	355	38.8	363	13.8	639	26.8
Latin	6	2.1	210	22.9	386	14.7	233	9.8
Spanish	30	10.3	147	16.1	134	5.1	147	6.2
French	24	8.3	151	16.5				
German								
Total Languages	297	102.4	880	96.1	1,096	41.6	1,203	50.5
English	257	88.6	826	90.2	1,961	74.5	1,842	77.3
History	202	69.7	595	65.0	1,521	57.8	1,230	51.6
Mathematics	339	116.9	517	56.4	898	34.2	1,052	44.2
Science	130	44.8	408	44.5	1,109	42.1	1,136	47.7
Art	11	3.8	138	15.1	304	11.6	389	16.3
Home Economics			140	15.3	588	22.3	321	13.5
Mechanical Arts			53	5.8	839	31.9	699	29.3
Mechanical Drawing					168	6.4	195	8.2
Commercial Subjects			314	34.3	2,142	81.4	1,314	55.2
Music			116	12.7	501	19.0	605	25.4

SOURCE: Jack K. McFarland, "Failing Grades Issued by Berkeley, California, High School" (Unpublished master's thesis; Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1948).

course offerings in grades seven to twelve remain virtually the same, although some of the specialized work in commercial and industrial subjects is advanced to grades thirteen and fourteen. These latter grades offer general courses in English, languages, social studies, science, and mathematics, and preprofessional courses similar to those of the freshman and sophomore years of the standard college and, in addition, provide a variety of "terminal" courses (for students completing their schooling at grade fourteen) in such fields as commercial education; secretarial training; aeronautics; electrical, mechanical, civil, and architectural technology; agriculture; forestry; and nursing.

DETERMINANTS OF THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

Every high school has some freedom to set up its program of studies as well as other curriculum activities, and to designate some subjects as required and the others elective. Examination of programs of studies from high schools throughout the United States, however, reveals that the practice is fairly uniform. Certain courses are always offered, even in the smallest schools: English, social studies, mathematics, science, languages, and physical education. Similarly, specific subject requirements are almost universally in only these subject fields. Practically nowhere is a high school student required to takes courses in music, art, industrial arts, commercial education; only in rural areas, if at all, is he required to take courses in home economics and agriculture.

Why is it that some subjects should be more respectable than others? Who determines what shall be offered and what shall be required? There is no single answer to these questions, but we may examine in some detail certain closely related factors that appear to be the most significant determinants of the program of studies: the purposes of secondary schools, tradition, college entrance requirements, state department and accrediting association regulations, and local limitations.

Purposes as Curriculum Determinants

The high school, in fact the public school in general, has characteristically been concerned with meeting the common needs of the young people who attend it. Such needs include those of the citizen, the homemaker, and the person. An educational program that is designed to meet these common needs is frequently referred to as general education. That is, the purpose of general education is to develop the skills, the attitudes, and the understandings that are commonly needed. Common needs also include those of the worker, but the skills needed are in part unique to particular occupations. Thus, all workers need understanding of the social significance of work, but only a small number in the working population need to understand the operations involved in any specific vocation or profession. The curriculum areas and experiences that are de-

voted to developing specific vocational or professional skills may be referred to as "specialized education."

The comprehensive secondary school of modern America is concerned with the purposes both of general education and of specialized education, that is, with the common needs of young persons and with the highly individualized needs of vocational preparation. The curriculum is determined by these purposes as provision is made for their attempted achievement. The elementary school has traditionally been the school of common experiences to serve common needs, that is, of general education. The traditional high school was a selective institution aiming to prepare for college, but still a school of general education designed to serve some common needs of those who attended. The purposes of general education are also served by the college and university, although it is here that specialized education, that is, vocational and professional courses, begins for most students. As pointed out further in Chapter XII, specialized education is most effective as an outgrowth of good general education.

The common need of adolescents met by the early secondary school was that of college preparation. Since Harvard required Latin and Greek for admission, the Boston Latin grammar school provided Latin and Greek. General education in the secondary school of early America was classical education. As other types of secondary schools, the academy and then the public high school, were established and noncollege preparatory students enrolled, this type of general education continued, but there also developed new conceptions of the curriculum experiences that all students were to have and the practice of differentiated requirements or curricula for those who were and those who were not going to college. A new institution, the public high school, took the next step of offering elective subjects in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The great increases in high school enrollment and the establishment of comprehensive high schools in this century have been accompanied by a tremendous multiplication in the number of subjects offered and the entrenchment of the elective system.

ISSUES REGARDING PURPOSES

As our secondary schools have moved throughout three hundred years from the required classical curriculum to to-day's comprehensive curriculum with its many subjects and complex elective system illustrated earlier in this chapter, the relation of the curriculum to the purposes of general and specialized education, has been variously interpreted but increasingly fundamental in curriculum planning. Thus, the Latin Grammar School had one purpose and one curriculum. The academy was concerned with preparation for living as well as for college and so offered the optional programs of study. The high school is a public institution for all youth of high school age, and so must serve many kinds of youth and

their special interests as well as their common needs. Practically no educator of the modern period would argue that the high school curriculum should be either wholly required or wholly elective. Differences in opinion and practice usually come as certain basic issues are discussed. Although the general subject of purposes of secondary education is treated fully in Chapter IV, some of these issues and their implications for the curriculum are summarized in the following paragraphs.[2]

Issue 1. *Should the curriculum serve the needs of society or of individuals?* The issue of social versus individual needs is frequently evaded by the statement that the needs of society are the needs of individuals. Although this is true in a general way, such a conception has little meaning for curriculum planning unless it recognizes that the ideal society is composed of individuals whose capacities and interests have been or are being developed to the maximum extent compatible with social aims. Democracy aims at the maximum liberation of individual intelligence to solve social problems and to provide for personal happiness. Acceptance of these aims implies that the curriculum must provide for the development of the common skills needed for democratic living and also the special capacities and interests that will provide optimum happiness for the individual. Thus the curriculum must include provision for acquiring such civic skills as selecting leaders, participating in committee activities, and reading the newspaper intelligently. At the same time it must provide for developing leaders, including committee chairmen, and for newspaper writers and publishers.

Issue 2. *Should the curriculum be planned by adults or young persons?* Although few persons would say that either adults alone or students alone should plan the curriculum, the extent to which it is planned by adults in advance certainly reflects a position on this issue. Any curriculum experience *required* of all students is a result of adult planning. Thus the elementary school curriculum has been traditionally planned by adults only, whereas the program of studies of a college student is to a large extent the result, within the limitations of offerings and of sequence requirements, of his own choice. The required-elective system in high school is, in effect, a compromise on this issue. That is, adults are willing to allow the interests of students to determine only the part of the program that is elective. Although this issue is closely related to the preceding one, it should be noted that a program of studies designed for individual needs might also be planned, and indeed usually is planned, by adults. Furthermore, even within a program of studies planned in advance by adults to include a maximum number of common experiences or re-

[2] For a further and excellent discussion of curriculum issues see Florence B. Stratemeyer, Hamden L. Forkner, and Margaret G. McKim, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), Chap. I.

quired subjects, there is always the possibility that a particular class group may select or plan certain experiences that are quite different from those originally planned.

Issue 3. *Should secondary education be primarily concerned with teaching the racial heritage or with teaching the problems of the present and future?* Acceptance of the belief that secondary education is primarily concerned with teaching the racial heritage leads to requirements in literature, history and language, whereas teaching the problems of the present and future implies emphasis on problems courses or new curriculum plans described in Chapter XII. The part of the curriculum that is devoted to the past can be much more definitely planned in advance. Required courses in literature and history, for example, can be planned and taught in such a way that they will relate almost completely to a general purpose of transmitting the racial heritage. If this is the sole purpose of secondary education, as it has sometimes been, the entire program of studies might logically be required, as in our early secondary education. Since the secondary school now accepts preparation for living as a major function, curriculum plans must be sufficiently flexible to permit modifications in accordance with changing problems and conditions.

Issue 4. *Should secondary education be selective or universal?* By tradition, secondary education is selective; by a modern democratic philosophy, it must be universal. As shown in Chapter X, the proportion of persons of high school age enrolled in the high school has steadily increased. As this increase took place, the range of the interests and capacities of enrollees has constantly widened. For each 100 persons from fourteen to seventeen years of age, the secondary school enrolled 7 in 1890; 11 in 1900; 15 in 1910; 32 in 1920; 51 in 1930; and 73 in 1940. That is, the proportion of adolescents of high school age who were actually in school was increased more than ten times during the fifty years from 1890 to 1940. Preliminary census studies based on sample data and released by the Bureau of the Census in 1948 indicated that approximately 80 per cent of persons from eleven to seventeen years of age (91.8 per cent of young people fourteen and fifteen years old; and 68.5 per cent, sixteen and seventeen years old) were enrolled in school.[3] Thus secondary education has become almost universal, and it is increasingly difficult for a single course or a single series of courses to serve the general purposes of all pupils.

Issue 5. *Should the purposes of college preparation and vocational preparation be considered as general or specialized?* Although

[3] United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports—Population Characteristics* (February 23, 1948, Series P-20, No. 13; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1948). See also the various statistics cited in Chapter X.

few would consider either college preparation or vocational preparation general education, practice does not always coincide with theory. That is, subjects such as Latin, that can usually be justified only for college preparation, or agriculture, that can be justified for vocational preparation, may be required of students because of the absence of adequate alternative courses. If the secondary curriculum is to prepare students for further study or work, multiple programs in accordance with anticipated future needs should be developed.

Issue 6. *Should special interests be served by special courses or by provision for individual differences and needs within general courses?* Concern for serving special interests has frequently resulted in such special courses as business English, business arithmetic, shop mathematics, industrial history, remedial English, speech, college-preparatory chemistry, household chemistry, and so forth. In other instances provision is made in a limited number of general courses for special work in areas of student interest and need, such as special groups within a general English course to study intensively business English, remedial reading, or speech.

When the faculty and board of education of a particular school set up a program of studies for that school, it is unlikely that their members will consciously identify these various issues. Instead, they will probably be guided by tradition, by regulations and requirements of agencies that have taken both tradition and these philosophical issues into account, and, of course, by local limitations. By examining these factors briefly we can see further how purposes operate as curriculum determinants.

Tradition as a Curriculum Determinant

Why should English and social-studies courses be required and others be elective? Why should any dead language be included? Why should American history be taught in grade twelve? Why should English literature be studied before American? Why should students be "selected" for algebra rather than general mathematics?

These and many other questions regarding the program of studies may defy objective answers. Answers that are matters of opinion can readily be given, but much less readily supported by research. Moreover, studies that may have justified grade placement or requirement or addition of a subject at one time may be, and frequently have been, questioned by later studies. The easy answer to most questions regarding the "why" of the program of studies is that "it has always been that way." In fact, even after more convincing arguments have been explored, the most adequate explanation remains that of tradition.

Tradition operates to determine the program of studies in certain specific ways that are briefly explained in the following paragraphs.

STUDIES OF PRESENT STATUS PERPETUATE TRADITION

The starting point in many schools and school systems in setting up new programs of studies or curriculum plans is to find out what the program of studies is in other schools and systems. Although this procedure is obviously important in order to determine and evaluate present practice, it by no means assures improvement. That is, the fact that most high schools require three units of English offers absolutely no proof that three units should be required in all schools or in a particular school. Yet in schools, as in many other social institutions, average, typical, or most common practice is frequently considered a sound guide for planning. To provide certain courses and activities simply because they are commonly provided is to assume that what has been should continue to be. Yet no person believes that since children have always had colds the school should provide exposure to colds.

A more scientific procedure would be to determine: (1) what purposes are to be achieved by the curriculum plan, (2) what subjects and activities are commonly designed or may be designed to achieve these purposes, (3) which of these common or new subjects and activities are appropriate and effective, and (4) what curriculum plan would include maximum exposure or minimum exposure, as indicated by its appropriateness, to these subjects and activities. Thus studies of present status may be extremely helpful as a basis for critical judgment and planning, but when they are followed without application of the critical method, they directly entrench present practice, and each such entrenchment is developing or embedding tradition.

CURRICULUM PLANNING MAY MERELY RECREATE PAST EXPERIENCE

Most curriculum plans are based on adult opinion. For example, a given school may set up its program of required and elective subjects by a vote of the faculty. This vote will be based on the opinion of faculty members. Now, opinion is always the result of experience, but if the experience of the faculty has been with the same general kind of curriculum, such as one dominated by college-preparatory purposes, there is lacking a basis for determining comparative values. Although appeal to opinion is doubtless a more valid procedure than imitation of present practice, the result will be the same if opinion assumes that what has been should be or, as is more frequently true, what has been is all that can be. The more limited the range of the experience of the decision-making group, the more possible such an opinion. Even though the group may include persons of varied experience or of ex-

perimental interests, these persons may be overruled by a majority that favors tradition.

REGULATIONS MAKE STATIC PLANS

As we shall describe later, the program of studies and other phases of the curriculum are determined in considerable measure by regulations of various kinds. These regulations, whether made by state legislatures, state and city boards of education and departments of instruction, accrediting associations, or other official bodies, may be made on the basis of present status or opinion. As revealed by the preceding analyses, these bases lend themselves to perpetuation of what has been. Furthermore, any regulation tends to perpetuate the practice regulated; indeed, the purpose of a regulation is to insure that some practice will be followed. For example, the obvious and undoubtedly justifiable purpose of the most common state law or regulation affecting the high school curriculum, that American history shall be taught in public high schools, is to insure the inclusion of a course in American history in all programs of studies. If a particular school wishes to experiment with some form of curriculum reorganization, a first concern will be that of satisfying, even if by evasion, the regulation. The original regulation may also have been interpreted to mean a particular kind of course that has been taught in grade twelve, and this interpretation may be presented as if it were the regulation to be complied with. Thus a practice has become a tradition more or less sanctioned by regulation.

TRADITION MAY BE A DIRECT SOURCE

The preceding paragraphs have shown how other bases of curriculum planning may ultimately result in adherence to past practice or tradition. However, the reliance on tradition need not be, and frequently is not, indirect. Many educators and many more laymen contend that the best guide for educational planning in general is the past. This philosophical attitude is closely identified with the position that the chief function of the school is to teach the racial heritage. Have you ever been told that "what was good for your fathers is good for you?" This belief may have strength and has certainly had wide influence, but it overlooks the factor of change. If one assumes constant, unchanging social conditions and needs of youth, then all we must do is to find the curriculum plan best suited to these conditions and needs, and adhere permanently to it. Social conditions, however, are not constant and unchanging, and the world to which youth needs to adjust in 1950 is quite unlike that of 1850 or 1750 or 1650.

The direct reliance on tradition in determining a program of studies is particularly common in young persons' (and their parents') choices of courses. Why are certain electives, in the so-called "academic" and "dis-

ciplinary" subjects, such as ancient language, literature, and mathematics, chosen? Even when college-entrance requirements cannot be given as the answer, the answer may be that parents or older children took these courses, or perhaps that these elders could not afford high school and therefore missed a prestige value they wish their children to have. Many adults associate geometry, foreign languages, and Shakespearean literature with high school; they feel that it would be as bad for their children to complete high school without experience in these subjects as it would be for them to complete elementary school without learning to read. Furthermore, tradition has attributed a certain respectability to some subjects. Languages, history, literature, and mathematics are verbal rather than manipulative studies; they have long been related to college and white-collar jobs; and they are the traditional studies of high school. Thus they become more respectable, and parents (and their children) want them included.

The preceding statements are not intended to deprecate the importance of past curriculum practice or of tradition in general. The authors know that tradition has exerted vast influence on the American secondary school, and they also know that the traditional school has made a very real contribution to American life. Any method of determining a program of studies that overlooks the influence and the virtue of traditional practices fails to take a first and essential step. Tradition of itself, however, is a completely inadequate basis for any kind of social planning, of which curriculum planning is a phase. Here we are merely trying to show how the curriculum is determined by various interwoven factors, including tradition.

Influence of the College-Preparatory Function

Frequent reference has already been made in this chapter and elsewhere in this book to the influence of the college on the high school curriculum. Perhaps it would be helpful at this point to review this relationship briefly, first, from a historical and descriptive point of view, and, secondly, by analysis of various specific ways in which college-entrance requirements directly and indirectly affect the curriculum, or, more exactly, the high school program of studies.

FUNCTIONS OF AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The college influence can be traced back to the English secondary schools on the model of which our Latin grammar schools were organized. The curriculum of these English schools, called "public schools" as in the modern period but privately established and controlled, consisted almost wholly of Latin and had as its purpose preparation for the universities. The American Latin grammar school aimed to prepare for college, and the college for the ministry, and preparation for the

ministry required the ability to read the Scripture in Latin or Greek. The curriculum of the Boston Latin Grammar School, established in 1635, consisted of Latin and Greek, and this curriculum, with some additions, persisted throughout the life of this and similar schools established in succeeding years.

The academy, first established in 1751, proposed to prepare for life as well as for college. New subjects were added—notably, geography, history, English, and mathematics—but the emphasis remained on the classical languages. The academy was privately supported, and although less aristocratic than its predecessor, was still primarily for economically privileged young persons. It did not succeed in implementing Franklin's ideal of a practical curriculum but became increasingly formalized and college preparatory in purpose and classical in curriculum.

In 1821, a second institution, the high school, was organized to prepare for living. For half a century the two schools existed on a more or less competitive basis, the academy being favored as a college-preparatory school and the high school struggling to provide a terminal education and also to assume the more respectable preparatory function. The classics were added to the high school curriculum, and the colleges made concessions to admit its graduates. The famous Kalamazoo, Michigan, case decided by the Supreme Court in 1874, definitely legalized public support of the high school, and spelled the doom of the academy and the popularization of the high school. However, to be popular, the high school had to prepare for college, and this purpose was wholeheartedly assumed despite objections from the colleges. The subsequent growth of the high school and the lack of uniformity in college-admission requirements led to extended discussions in the colleges and in the National Education Association of the need for bridging the gap between high school and college. Beginning about 1890, this problem became a perennial one for investigation by committees and national meetings, and these studies and discussions perhaps more than any factor other than the traditional respectability of some so-called "cultural" and "disciplinary" subjects, have created the bugaboo of college-entrance requirements.

COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

During our early history, college admission was based on oral examination and interview. Toward the middle of the nineteenth century, as many new colleges were established, the examinations were written. Each institution also stipulated certain prerequisite courses, although there was wide variation in the number and identity of subjects required. The requirements for admission to Harvard in 1870 included Latin, Greek, arithmetic, geography, algebra, geometry, ancient history, oral reading of English, and physical geography. More or less uniform re-

quirements in English literature, classical languages, and mathematics were adopted by the New England colleges on the Harvard model, and the requirements of these colleges were regarded by many, if not most, high schools as *the* college-entrance requirements. Increasingly after the middle of the nineteenth century, the tendency was to specify what subjects, in addition to those required, would be accepted. Extension of the list of accepted subjects and reduction of the list of required subjects became the usual method of liberalizing college-entrance requirements.

The need for uniformity in college-entrance requirements was emphasized by President Eliot of Harvard before the National Education Association in 1890, and in succeeding years several national committees, which have been listed in Chapter III, made recommendations on this subject. The Committee of Ten reporting in 1893 recommended that the high school curriculum should include certain subjects (Latin, Greek, English, German, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, general history, astronomy, meteorology, botany, zoology, physiology, geology, ethnology, physics and chemistry) and that "every subject which is taught in a secondary school shall be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil so long as he pursue it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease."[4] Although this report strongly emphasized the college-preparatory function of the high school, it did not bring about uniformity in stated admission procedures and requirements.

The Committee on College Entrance Requirements suggested in 1899 the establishment of a uniform system of accounting for high school courses, and such a system was soon provided by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in the Carnegie unit, which perhaps more than any other factor has standardized the mechanics of the high school program of studies. Thereafter, college requirements were stated in terms of units, and fifteen or sixteen units became the standard number required.

Another standardizing influence has been the uniform examinations given by the College Entrance Examination Board, organized in 1900; these examinations have been taken by relatively few college entrants but have nevertheless provided guidance to high school curriculum planners and teachers seeking some standard on which to rely. Uniform requirements in terms of specific subjects (English, 3; social science, 1; and natural science, 1), majors (2, including English) and minors (1), total units (15), and acceptable subjects (a minimum of 11 units in English, languages, mathematics, social science, and natural science or other academic subjects), were recommended in 1911 by the influential

[4] National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1894 (St. Paul: The Association, 1895), p. 749.

Committee on Articulation of Secondary Schools and Colleges, and the pattern thus recommended is still widely followed, as shown by the illustration of required and elective subjects given earlier in this chapter.

Other national committees concerned with the problem of uniformity that worked early in the present century were those on Six-Year Courses (1905 to 1909), on Economy of Time in Education (1905 to 1913), the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1906), and on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (1913–1918). Although this last committee produced a far-reaching report, *The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education,* which saw secondary education as having much broader functions than college preparation, a few years later two other national committees produced reports designed to further entrench the cultural and disciplinary studies required for college. The National Committee on Mathematical Requirements (1920–1923) declared that "there is no conflict between the needs of those pupils who ultimately go to college and those who do not"[5] and recommended a prescribed program of studies in mathematics. The Classical Investigation (1921–1923), conducted by a committee of the American Classical League, recommended a six-year course in Latin for high schools. As shown in Chapter XII, in more recent years national committees and studies have been more concerned with liberalizing the requirements that were created or influenced by the earlier committees and studies cited.

So much for the general movement of college-entrance requirements. They have been established directly by (1) individual colleges, (2) agreements of colleges, and (3) acceptance of recommendations by national committees. They are enforced directly by (1) examinations, (2) evaluation of high school transcripts to determine whether certain course prescriptions are met, and (3) accreditation of high schools. Colleges and universities have increasingly admitted students on the basis of the certificate of their high school, with the usual provision that the high school must be accredited and that the student's record of credits (transcript) must conform to the subjects required. Fine's recent study of college-admission practices concluded that "the certificate method is the one most widely employed in the state universities and smaller institutions, whereas college entrance examinations are chiefly used by the traditional colleges," and also pointed out that many colleges and universities used both methods.[6]

[5] National Committee on Mathematic Requirements, *The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education,* United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1921, No. 32; (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1922), p. 1.

[6] Benjamin Fine, *Admission to American Colleges* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946), pp. 20–22.

The actual subjects typically required, whether by examination or transcript, were found to be as follows in 1936–1937:[7]

SUBJECT	UNITS
English	3
Mathematics	2
Social studies	1
Natural science	1
Foreign language	2
Total prescribed (of 15)	9

This pattern was most typical, but even then there were many variations ranging from none to fourteen prescribed units. Despite recent efforts to liberalize school and college relationships, particularly by agreement of individual colleges with particular schools, Fine concluded in 1946 that a "majority of the institutions require four years of English, a year of algebra, a year of plane geometry, two years of a foreign language, one year of natural science, and one year of social science."[8]

That these requirements are very definitely restrictive is emphasized in this observation:

> Colleges and universities have standardized their practices so far as subjects needed for entering is concerned. Only in the exceptional case will the college accept students who do not meet the minimum academic needs. If, for example, a student has taken a general course in high school and has only eleven units of academic work, the rest of it technical or commercial, he will be denied entrance in the majority of American colleges. A year of post-graduate high school work to make up the deficiencies in the subjects not covered in high school would be required by most institutions.[9]

The most important influences of the colleges in determining the high school program of studies, however, are indirect. Some of these indirect influences are described in the following paragraphs.

INDIRECT INFLUENCES OF COLLEGES

Large numbers of young persons who will never go to college follow a college-preparatory program of studies because of the "respectability" of these studies, because of the lack of alternatives, because of uncertainty as to the possibility of college, or because of confusion as to college requirements.

Data presented in Chapter X revealed that of all pupils entering the secondary school grades, slightly more than one half will not finish high

[7] National Education Association, *From High School to College* (Research Bulletin, Vol. 16, No. 2; Washington, D. C.: The Association, March, 1938), p. 78.

[8] Fine, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

school, six of seven will not enter college, and thirteen of fourteen will not graduate from college. Therefore, if only the students who are actually going to college should take the college-preparatory program, only about 15 per cent of pupils entering the seventh grade, or 35 percent of those graduating from high school, should elect it. If we consider only those who complete college, the percentage would be even smaller. As has already been pointed out in this chapter, the college-preparatory pattern dominates the program of studies, and the majority—not as we have suggested, only 15 to 35 per cent—of all high school pupils follow the pattern.

The National Survey of Secondary Education revealed in 1932 that about two thirds of the time of students in high school was spent in academic courses suitable for college entrance. The New York State Survey a few years ago indicated that about three quarters of the time of New York State high school pupils was spent in academic subjects, including music and art. A 1939 survey of one large city school system revealed that, although only 5 per cent of the city's young persons attended college, 95 per cent of the high school students were taking a highly academic curriculum; the remark was made that "it is absolutely indefensible . . . to pattern the program for the 95 per cent on the requirements laid down by colleges for the 5 per cent."[10] In the comprehensive city high school of 1,500 students with which one of the authors has been associated and which may be considered typical of such schools, about 17 per cent of the graduates, from 1936 to 1946, had attended college, but in 1946–1947, 44 per cent of the seniors and 37 per cent of all students were enrolled in the college-preparatory course.

Furthermore, and perhaps of greater significance, only about 15 per cent of our high schools are large enough (500 pupils or more) to offer optional programs of study. According to Table 9 (Chapter VIII), in 1945–1946 three of every four high schools enrolled less than 300 pupils. Almost universally the small high school provides an academic or college-preparatory program of studies first and adds other subjects as enrollment and finances permit.

When there is lack of uniformity in college-entrance requirements, the tendency is to urge compliance with the most rigid or complete. Were you told in high school that some subject wasn't required by all colleges but that you had better take it just in case you wanted to go to an Eastern college or some other institution? Confronted by a situation in which requirements vary greatly and students are uncertain as to their college choice, it is inevitable that the student and his parent will want insurance against refusal of admission to a school and that the faculty will want

[10] George D. Strayer, and staff, *A Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of St. Louis, Missouri* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939), p. 25.

insurance against the criticism that a graduate was not prepared to enter a particular college.

Varying reports from college students and teachers as to how to succeed in college create pressures on the high school program of studies. Most high school teachers have heard at one time or another from their graduates or their graduates' parents or from teachers such statements as these:

"College success requires a reading knowledge of Latin."
"Every high school should require a course in theme writing to prepare for college."
"Know your English literature (or geometry, or chemistry, or American history) and the freshman year will be easy."
"Don't waste time in high school on modern history or the social sciences, because colleges have to teach it all over."

Such reports, and they are multiple, exert a most significant influence on the high school curriculum, particularly in the internal organization of courses. Sometimes a course of study (outline of the subject matter of a particular course) has been revised because of the difficulties some one graduate had in college, and without reference to the reactions of the other graduates.

An application for entrance to a large university, by a graduate of a high school with which one of the authors was associated, was first questioned because courses entitled "Community Living" and "Social Problems" were offered as fulfilling in part a major requirement in social studies. The admissions officer of this university proposed that the applicant take additional work in history or economics in lieu of these "questionable" courses before requesting admission. Such an attitude on the part of admissions officials makes experimentation with new high school courses extremely difficult, since parents and students are constantly concerned that the courses taken will be accepted by the colleges.

College faculties also exert a status domination over the high schools. A direct form of domination over high schools by colleges has been brought about by the stacking of national and other committees with college representatives. A glaring example of this was the Committee of Ten, whose almost exclusive attention to college preparation as the only function of the high school has already been described. Five of the ten members were college presidents, another was a college professor, and two others were headmasters of Eastern preparatory schools. Committee after committee that has made recommendations concerning school and college articulation, the regulations of state departments and accrediting associations, and programs within particular subjects has been weighted with college members. The committee that made the classical investigation for the American Classical League beginning in 1921,

consisted of fifteen members, of whom only five were from high schools. To these facts must be added the influence of college professors serving on local curriculum committees, speaking at teachers' meetings, and teaching teachers-to-be.

Unquestionably college administrators and professors have much to contribute, but their occupations and experience would naturally tend to make their interest in the high school one of college preparation. Their prestige as college representatives have characteristically given their opinions great weight, as is evidenced by the reports of the committees and other groups they have dominated. In recent years, however, as the colleges, too, have become concerned about changes in the high school curriculum, many college representatives have used their status to bring about revisions that are much more acceptable to critics of the traditional college-entrance requirements.

Influence of Accreditation Standards

As graduates of the public high school began to request admission to colleges, the colleges sought means of securing adequate preparation. In 1871, the University of Michigan adopted the plan of admitting without examination graduates from secondary schools approved, or "accredited," by the University. This practice spread rapidly and was soon followed by the organization of associations of colleges and secondary schools whose chief function was to maintain lists of accredited schools. The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, organized in 1885, does not accredit schools, but accredited lists are issued by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (organized in 1892), the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1895), the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges (1895), and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools (1918).

In addition to the accrediting lists maintained by state universities and other higher institutions and by regional associations are those prepared as a usual function of the state departments of education. As state financial aid for secondary education became common, steps were taken by the states to insure a minimum educational program in the localities receiving state funds. Accordingly, standards for approved high schools are periodically issued by most state departments, and the schools evaluated accordingly.

Standards for accreditation, whether by the state university, the state department, accrediting association, or some combination arrangement, have generally been concerned with physical facilities and other items that could be counted or otherwise objectively determined. Thus the number of books in the library, the number of pupils per teacher, the number of units offered, and the like have been characteristic items for

standardization. Once standards are announced, schools are inspected or their reports analyzed by representatives from the accrediting agency.

In recent years many educators have agreed that quantitative standards are an inadequate basis for evaluating a school's program, and various devices have been used to make standards and standardizing procedures more liberal and flexible. For example, instead of listing the subjects and other curriculum activities that accredited schools must provide, the recent *Policies, Regulations and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools* of the powerful and large North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools simply stipulates:

> An educational program which is concerned only with preparation for college can no longer be considered an adequate offering for a school, although preparation for college should continue to be one function of secondary education. The program should provide for the interests, needs, and abilities of all pupils as well as for the requirements of the community and the public supporting the school.[11]

It is further significant that the association's accrediting regulations are preceded by a statement of the following general principles:

1. An institution should be judged upon the basis of the total pattern it presents as an institution of its type. While it seems necessary that institutions be judged in terms of particular characteristics, it should be recognized that wide variations will appear in the degree of success achieved.
2. It should be accepted as a principle of procedure that deficiency in one field may be compensated for by strength in other fields—no school should be denied accreditation because it fails to meet a specific standard if its total pattern of achievement is good.
3. A school should be judged, in so far as possible, in terms of its own philosophy and the purpose which it serves in its own community.
4. Criteria should be flexible, and of a type that can readily adjust themselves to changing conditions. The fact should be recognized that individual differences exist among schools and among communities.
5. Objective criteria should be based upon a sufficient amount of research and experimentation to establish their validity as measuring instruments.
6. While it seems desirable that criteria regard as basic certain characteristics, such as faculty preparation, the intellectual and moral tone of a school, the nature of the school plant, the adequacy of equipment and supplies, the quality of the school library and library service, the condition of the records, the policies of the board of education, the financial status, the teaching load, and the educational program, it should be recognized that considerable divergence from normal standards may occur in one of these characteristics without greatly detracting from the educational merits of an institution. Uniformity in every detail stifles educational experimentation and is not only unnecessary but undesirable.

[11] North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *Policies, Regulations and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools* (Lincoln, Nebr.: The Association, 1948), p. 14.

7. Criteria, to be of maximum value, must be stimulating and conducive to educational growth; they should provide the facilities for continuous self evaluation and the incentive to strive endlessly toward higher goals of achievement.[12]

An important movement to loosen the hold of standards on the high school curriculum was the *Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards* initiated by the six accrediting associations in 1933. From the study a set of *Evaluative Criteria* was developed whereby any school staff could evaluate its own program. Modifications and plans for use of these criteria were developed rather generally, and they have been influential in recent efforts in many communities to devise curriculum plans related to community needs.

Local Limitations as Curriculum Determinants

The determinants of the program of studies that we have been analyzing so far have operated rather universally. Their influence is proved by the great similarity among the programs of studies in all high schools. There is, in addition, a series of factors that create certain differences among the programs of studies in particular localities. Although some of these factors have already been described, we shall try to summarize here the influence of each.

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

As was pointed out in Chapter VIII, many different kinds of secondary schools are found in the United States: six-year, three-year, four-year, and even two-year high schools, variously organized in terms of the 8–4, 6–3–3, 6–6, 6–4–4, 6–4–2–2, or 8–3 plan of organization. Although the same subjects may be offered regardless of the plan, their grade placement, variety, and length may be affected. For example, schools on the 6–3–3 plan usually offer a more varied program in grades 7–8 than those on the 8–4 plan, and schools on the 6–4–4 plan usually defer certain specialized training later than do those on the 6–3–3 or 8–4 plan.

SIZE AND WEALTH

In general, as the number of persons in a group increases, the number having the same or similar abilities and interests increases. The high school is no exception, and as the number of pupils increases, so does the number of subjects in which some minimum number of pupils is interested and which the school can therefore afford to offer. Thus the small high school may offer no elective courses, whereas as many as 200 separate courses, the great majority elective, are offered in the largest comprehensive high schools. However, as was pointed out

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

earlier, over half of the public high schools in the United States enroll less than 200 pupils. Thus, the limited enrollment in thousands of our high schools restricts greatly the range of curriculum offerings.

Indicative of the curriculum limitations of small schools are the following statistics comparing rural and urban schools (elementary and secondary) in 1941–1942: [13]

	URBAN	RURAL
Average number of pupils enrolled	423	59
Average number of persons on instructional staff	14.2	2.4
Average number of days in school term	181.3	167.2
Average expense per pupil	$114.61	$ 80.44
Estimated value of school property per pupil enrolled	$429.00	$200.00

In general, instruction in the so-called "academic" subjects costs less than that in the courses involving considerable equipment, laboratories, shops, land, and so forth. In communities that do not have adequate state aid or cannot match federal funds, the program may be restricted to an academic one primarily because of a lack of funds. Furthermore, financial resources largely determine how much and what kind of assistance in program making is available in the way of counselors, curriculum planners, research workers, and adaptable teachers and administrators.

UNIQUE COMMUNITY NEEDS AND PRESSURES

The program of studies of a particular school should be affected, we would agree, by the unique character of its community. That this factor frequently has relatively little effect is shown by the almost identical programs of studies offered in communities of totally different characteristics. However, the points can be defended that there are many common characteristics, that students may not remain in their communities, and that the adaptations to local conditions should be made within courses rather than by the creation of special courses. Also, it is true that courses in agriculture are widely offered in rural communities, and courses in industrial training in urban communities. Boards of education or other groups responsible for adding new subjects to the curriculum are also sometimes responsive to various community pressures for courses in local history, local government, safety education, local occupations, and others.

It should also be noted that local pressures may be negative. That is, public opinion, or at least the vocal public opinion, may restrict faculty efforts to eliminate Latin, algebra, or other subjects from the

[13] David T. Blose, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1943–44," Chap. 1 in United States Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1943–44* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 12.

curriculum. Although the authors believe that this influence is frequently merely an excuse for sticking to the familiar program, it cannot be denied that the public's lack of sympathy or of approval is a powerful deterrent to curriculum change. Where the public's disapproval or indifference has existed and has been overcome, the school forces have carried on a program of educating the adult public regarding curriculum needs and of enlisting public cooperation.

How Good Is the Curriculum?

CRITICISMS OF THE CURRICULUM

Examination of educational and lay literature for the past two decades offers convincing evidence that both laymen and educators have seriously questioned the adequacy of the high school curriculum. Publications of such outstandingly reputable professional groups as the Educational Policies Commission (see *Education for all American Youth* and *Policies for Education in American Democracy*), the American Association of School Administrators (see *Youth Education Today*), the American Youth Commission (see *Youth Tell Their Story*), the National Association of Secondary School Principals (see *Planning for American Youth*), the John Dewey Society (see *The American High School*), the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges (see *General Education in the American High School*), and the New York Regents' Inquiry (see *High School and Life*) have pointed out fundamental deficiencies in the program of secondary education and made many suggestions and proposals for its improvement.

A particularly strong indictment of the usual secondary program of studies is contained in the following quotation from the Educational Policies Commission's *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy:*

> Here is a scene for the pen of a satirist. *Time:* 1938. *Place:* an American high school. *Setting:* a democracy struggling against strangulation in an era marked by confused loyalties in the political realm, by unrest and deprivation, by much unnecessary ill-health, by high-pressure propaganda, by war and the threats of war, by many broken or ill-adjusted homes, by foolish spending, by high crime rates, by bad housing, and by a myriad of other urgent, real human problems. And what are the children in this school, in this age, in this culture, learning? They are learning that the square of the sum of two numbers equals the sum of their squares plus twice their product; that Millard Fillmore was the thirteenth President of the United States and held office from January 10, 1850, to March 4, 1853; that the capital of Honduras is Tegucigalpa; that there were two Peloponnesian Wars and three Punic Wars; that Latin verbs meaning command, obey, please, displease, serve, resist, and the like take the dative; and that a gerund is a neuter verbal noun used in the oblique cases of the singular and governing the same case as its verb.[14]

[14] Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938), p. 147.

Articles in popular magazines and editorials in newspapers have also brought many criticisms of secondary education to our attention. For example, an article in the widely read *Ladies' Home Journal* in 1947 cited as "What's Wrong with High Schools?" criticisms of their overcrowded conditions, their regimenting methods, their heavy programs of studies, and their overuse of books.[15] An article in the *American Mercury* in 1946 answered a similar question by blaming the college-preparatory emphasis:

> Of the seven million boys and girls now in high school only 20 per cent have the ability, the desire, and the means to enter college. But whether from custom and inertia, or vested pedagogic interests, or lay deference, or social prestige—whatever the reason, the majority of students, whose education must end in high school, engage in the same "preparatory" subjects. And since these subjects are so often barren of value to those who do not go to college (and for that matter to those who do) our high schools are united by a common servitude, and accordingly by a common need for liberation.[16]

Other such articles have criticized the schools for being too progressive or too traditional, or on other counts, but the significant point is that there has been fairly wide dissatisfaction with the high school's adjustment to its increased population. Despite these many criticisms, one cannot conclude that the high school curriculum is "bad." In the first place, arriving at any criteria for judging its goodness that will be universally accepted is difficult. In the second place, each school is more or less different from all other schools, and its program should be evaluated on its own merits. However, we may agree with the general principle that the high school has been unable as yet to adjust its program to the needs of all young persons. In the next chapter we shall consider these needs and some of the adjustments that are being made through curriculum change.

A CHECK LIST FOR APPRAISAL OF A CURRICULUM

You who are studying the high school curriculum would find it a useful exercise to draw up for yourself a check list by which you can decide whether the curriculum of a particular school is good. As you visit a school or study about it, you could ask the questions on your list and decide for yourself how good its curriculum is. Such a check list should include questions about these items:

1. The purposes of the school, that is, the needs of the young persons served. (Remember that you wish to refer to these purposes or needs constantly to determine how well they are satisfied by the program.)

[15] George H. Henry, "What's Wrong with High Schools?" *Ladies' Home Journal*, **64**:28–29, 74, 77 (January), 1947.

[16] Benjamin M. Steigman, "What Ails Our High Schools?" *American Mercury*, **62**:540 (May), 1946.

2. The studies and activities offered for general-education purposes, that is, for all young persons enrolled.

3. The studies and activities offered for special-interest purposes.

4. The status of improvement efforts, such as a core curriculum, work-experience program, and school-community activities.

5. The nature of classroom organization, facilities, and procedures.

6. The nature of out-of-class activities: types, organization, programs.

7. The provision of guidance and other services to young persons in solving personal, educational, and vocational problems: organization, techniques, and results.

8. The plans ahead for modifying the school's program.

Subsequent chapters deal with these items. It is suggested that you formulate your check list for appraising a school's curriculum as you study through these chapters, and as often as possible actually visit a school and apply your check list or parts thereof.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

Chapter I describes the present status of high school education, and Chapter IV analyzes the subject curriculum.

American Association of School Administrators, *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook; Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938.

A committee of school superintendents and others interested in administration of the high schools discuss the kind of secondary education needed by youth. Chapter III lists five serious defects of the present curriculum.

Brubacher, John S., *A History of the Problems of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947.

Chapters IX and X trace the development of the school curriculum from the ancient to the present period.

Caswell, Hollis L. (ed.), *The American High School*. Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

An interpretation of the problems and opportunity of the high school. See Chapter VI, "Assets and Liabilities of the High School."

———, and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*. New York: American Book Company, 1935.

Chapter III analyzes four important influences on the curriculum: (1) subject matter, (2) textbooks, (3) minority groups, and (4) standards.

Douglass, Harl R. (ed.), *The High School Curriculum*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947.

Thirty-one chapters by various authors consider general curriculum problems and developments in the subject fields. Chapters 1 to 6 review some of the factors that have determined the nature of the high school curriculum.

Edwards, Newton, and Herman G. Richey, *The School in the American Social Order.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947.
Chapter 17, "The Quest for a Content of Education," traces the development of the school curriculum, showing (pages 741 to 754) recent influences and trends in the secondary school.

Fine, Benjamin, *Admission to American Colleges.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.
Presents results of a survey of admission policies of 450 colleges and universities in the United States, and attempts to answer such controversial questions as: What type of high school program is best? Who should go to college?

Graham, Ben C. (chm.), and others, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940.
This brief (36 pages) Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum, to the American Youth Commission, presents major changes that the committee felt necessary in the high school curriculum.

Gruhn, William T., and Harl R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School.* New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947.
See Chapters 5 to 7 for an analysis of the development, and the present status, of the junior high school curriculum.

Gwynn, J. Minor, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943.
History of curriculum development in American elementary and secondary schools, with special emphasis on recent experiments and trends. See Part IV, "The Secondary School Curriculum."

Henry, George H., "What's Wrong With High Schools?" *Ladies' Home Journal,* 64:28–29, 74, 77 (January), 1947.
Criticisms of the high schools for their physical conditions, methods, curriculum, and materials.

Jessen, Carl A., *Offerings and Registrations in High School Subjects, 1933–34.* United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1938, No. 6; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938.
Analysis of trends in high school subject enrollments from 1890 to 1934, and of the status of offerings and enrollments in 1934.

Kilpatrick, William H., "We Must Remake Our Secondary Education," *Progressive Education,* 23:244–247 (May), 1946.
States the need for revamping secondary education and indicates guides for reorganization.

Koos, Leonard V., *Integrating High School and College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.
Chapters IV and V analyze the junior college curriculum.

Leonard, J. Paul, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum.* New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1946.
This comprehensive analysis of the secondary school curriculum treats in

detail its historical development and its philosophical, psychological, and social bases in Chapters 1 to 11.

———, "Facing the Evidence on College-Entrance Requirements," *School Review*, 53:237–335 (June), 1945.

Analysis of studies designed to determine factors related to success in college, and their implications for college-entrance requirements.

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *Policies, Regulations and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*. Lincoln, Nebr.: The Association, 1948.

See for the specific policies, regulations, and criteria used by the association in the accreditation of high schools in the North Central states.

Sexson, John A., and John W. Harbeson, *The New American College*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

See Chapter XX, "Basic Educational Principles Underlying Curricular Revision on the Junior College Level," and Chapters XXI to XXIII for description of the curriculum of the junior college, particularly the Pasadena, California, Junior College.

Spears, Harold, *Secondary Education in American Life*. New York: American Book Company, 1941.

Chapters IV and V describe the historical development of the secondary school curriculum.

Steigman, Benjamin, "What Ails Our High Schools?" *American Mercury*, 62:540–546 (May), 1946.

A criticism of the high school for its emphasis on the college-preparatory function, concluding that "it's high time that the colleges set American high schools free" (page 546).

Stiles, Dan (pseudonym), *High Schools for Tomorrow*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

A newspaper writer and lecturer gives his impressions of what's wrong with American high schools and of some forward steps that have been, and of more that need to be, taken.

Stratemeyer, Florence B., Hamden L. Forkner; and Margaret G. McKim, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

See Chapter I for a discussion of issues involved in curriculum planning.

XII CURRICULUM PLANNING AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

In Chapter XI the authors described the factors that appear to have caused the high school curriculum to be what it is. Attention was given to the relative importance of the program of studies or subjects in the total curriculum and to the influence of the following factors in determining the program of studies: purposes of secondary education, tradition, college preparation, accreditation standards, and local limitations. It was also noted that the traditional high school curriculum has been widely criticized. Why does the curriculum need modification? Why are the forces that have made it what it is no longer adequate bases for curriculum planning? *Because,* it is generally agreed by critics within and without the teaching profession, *the traditional high school curriculum does not adequately serve the needs of all young persons who now attend or should attend the modern high school.* Review of the attempts that have been made to change the curriculum will show that in general they have aimed to serve better some need or needs of youth. Following such a review, we may examine more directly the relationship between adolescent needs and curriculum change.

Attempts to Relate the Curriculum to the Needs of Youth

Why do courses having the same title appear to be quite different? What are core curriculums? Why and how do some schools provide work opportunities for students? Why are core curriculums and work programs found in only certain schools? Why are certain activities extracurricular in one school and part of classroom procedure in another? These and other differences in curriculum practice exist because schools use varying approaches to the general problem of relating the curriculum to the needs of youth. The various approaches to modifying the curriculum that schools use are as follows: (1) addition of subjects and activities, (2) reorganization within subjects and activities, (3) over-all reorganization plans such as core curriculum, and (4) combination procedures.

ADDITION OF SUBJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

That the high school curriculum has been greatly modified by addition of subjects and activities can be, and has been, affirmed statis-

tically. One can compare the subjects offered by almost any large high school at an early and at a later period and find that relatively few subjects have been dropped but that many have been added. Van Dycke compared the offerings of 35 high schools from 1906 to 1930, finding that the average number of subjects increased from 23 to 48 and the total number from 53 to 306 during this period.[1]

Surveys of high school enrollments made by the United States Office of Education reported data on 16 subjects in 1895 and on 206 subjects in 1934; however, in neither year were all the subjects that were offered included in the survey.[2] Because of the lack of complete data and because of the great confusion in the titles of subjects, it is impossible to determine accurately the exact number of subjects that have been added in the past twenty years or any other period, but one has only to review the history of individual schools to see that the typical method of modifying the curriculum is one of addition.

Indicative of the continued addition of courses is that in one state (Iowa) for which comparable data are available the number of separate courses offered in high schools increased from 171 in 1934 to 288 in 1944.[3] Instead of only the traditional required English courses, a large Denver senior high school offered the following courses on an elective basis in 1948:

College-preparatory English
Speech
American literature
Advanced literature
Stagecraft
Drama
Creative writing
Journalism
Composition
Reading
Contemporary literature
English literature
Writers' bureau
Senior drama[4]

If we refer to the list of subjects offered in high school, many subjects are noted whose genesis can be described. Business English was

[1] George E. Van Dycke, "Trends in the Development of the High School Offering," *School Review*, **39**:657–644, 737–747 (November, December), 1931.

[2] Carl A. Jessen, *Offerings and Registrations in High School Subjects, 1933–34*, United States Office of Education Bulletin 1938 No. 6; (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 1–3.

[3] Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, *A Proposed Design for Secondary Education in Iowa* (Des Moines: The Department, 1947), p. 57.

[4] From *Schedule of Classes, South High School, Denver, Colorado, Second Semester, January 26, 1948–June 4, 1948.*

added because teachers, business men, and others felt that high school graduates who went directly into commercial work *needed* more knowledge of letter writing, business forms, and so forth than the regular English course provided. Advanced civics was added because it was considered impossible to teach government, which adolescents were believed to *need*, adequately within the regular history courses. Business arithmetic was added for reasons similar to those for business English, that is, to meet a *need* of some of the students. Consumer education was added because it seemed impossible to meet, in the home economics or other courses, the consumer's *need* for knowledge about buying. So the reasoning goes. If it is felt that the school should meet needs for knowledge about health practices, add a course in health; or about current affairs, add a course in modern problems; or about driving an automobile, add a course in driver training (see Plate 17).

Almost all the extracurricular activities have been added in the nineteenth century. As high schools have accepted broader functions than those of a purely academic nature and as more consideration has been given to the interests of young persons, a great variety of extra-class activities has been provided by the schools. Under our definition of the curriculum as "the life and program of the school," these activities are as much a part of the curriculum as classes in Latin, English, or history. However, they have had to fight their way into curricular status, and even at present in many if not most schools such activities as the following have been added and are maintained on an after-school, non-credit, voluntary basis:

Athletics (both intramural and interscholastic)
Publications
Club programs
Student organizations (including student councils)
Dramatics
Debate
Glee clubs
Orchestra
Band

In other schools, however, some or all of these activities have been incorporated in the curriculum through provision of credit and time within the school day.

REORGANIZATION OF SUBJECTS AND ACTIVITIES

Teachers and others in the field of education sometimes object to the additive process of curriculum change. "Can't we teach modern problems," they ask, "without adding a course by that name?" "Though health is important for all youth," these critics say, "we must do more

than offer an elective course in health." In schools where some attempt is made to revise the curriculum without adding or dropping subjects, such internal changes as are described in the following paragraphs are made.

Various special needs in English are provided by adaptation of the regular English course. Business letters, as well as social letters, are

PLATE 17

DRIVER TRAINING IN THE CLASSROOM. Driver training (through work in the classroom and on the road) is a popular addition to the curriculum. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

written. Letters of application receive more emphasis; letters of invitation less. Pupils taking courses in typing and stenography are encouraged to construct model business letters for the English classes. All English classes provide for some participation in public speaking, debate, dramatics, and journalism, and pupils with special interests and abilities in these fields are encouraged to take an additional semester or a year on a credit basis.

Health is made an objective in several departments. Courses in biology are reorganized to stress human biology. Students in physical-education classes are given instruction in health practices, personal hygiene, and related problems. Student assemblies on health problems are arranged, and the services of physicians and nurses are utilized for the explanation of technical phases of health instruction.

Modern social problems are used as a basis for organizing instruction in social studies and sometimes in other subjects. A topical organization of history around such problems as politics, industrialization, and world affairs is substituted for the usual chronological order. Readings in literature are correlated with the social problems studied in history. Student forums, assembly programs, debates, and other extracurricular activities devote attention to current problems.

Extracurricular activities are given definite curricular status by various means in addition to those already illustrated. The activities of the Science Club may be transferred to science classes. The Scribbler's Club may become the class in advanced English. The elected members of the Student Council may receive credit in civics. An activity period is placed in the schedule, and instead of a study period pupils have homeroom one day, assembly another, and club and student-government organizations, program rehearsals, and library periods the other three days.

Some schools have also reorganized existing subjects to provide for "broad fields" and "correlated" curriculums. Under the first plan, all social-studies courses, for example, are planned as phases of a continuous social-studies program rather than as separate subjects. Sometimes this organization has been called "fused" or "unified" social studies. This type of curriculum planning has been particularly common in elementary schools where the broad fields are usually language arts, social studies, mathematics and science, fine and practical arts, health and physical education. "Correlation" of English and social studies or mathematics and science is also attempted by means of joint planning of these subjects by the teachers concerned, so that the literature of the American Revolution is studied, for example, with the history of the Revolutionary period.

OVER-ALL REORGANIZATION BY MEANS OF NEW SCHOOL-COLLEGE RELATIONSHIPS

Basic to any fundamental change in the high school curriculum is a redefinition of the extent to which the high school should be controlled by traditional ideas of the preparation necessary for college. The first major attack on this problem was made by the Eight-Year Study conducted, beginning in 1932, under the auspices of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association. To carry on experimental studies, thirty secondary schools were released by the colleges from the usual college-entrance require-

ments, the colleges agreeing to accept the graduates of these schools without regard to the specific subjects taken in high school. The Commission studied carefully the college records of the graduates of these schools, matching 1,475 graduates from the thirty experimental schools with 1,475 graduates of conventional high schools. Comparison of the two groups on many criteria of college success established conclusively that no particular plan of college preparation, so far as subjects in high school are concerned, is superior to any other plan. Specifically, the comparison of the matched pairs revealed that the graduates of the thirty experimental schools

1. earned a slightly higher total grade average;
2. earned higher grade averages in all subject fields except foreign languages;
3. specialized in the same academic fields as did the comparison students;
4. did not differ from the comparison group in the number of times they were placed on probation;
5. received slightly more academic honors in each year;
6. were more often judged to possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive;
7. were more often judged to be precise, systematic, and objective in their thinking;
8. were more often judged to have developed clear or well-formulated ideas concerning the meaning of education—especially in the first two years in college;
9. more often demonstrated a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations;
10. did not differ from the comparison group in ability to plan their time effectively;
11. had about the same problems of adjustment as the comparison group, but approached their solution with greater effectiveness;
12. participated somewhat more frequently, and more often enjoyed appreciative experiences, in the arts;
13. participated more in all organized student groups except religious and "service" activities;
14. earned in each college year a higher percentage of non-academic honors (officership in organizations, election to managerial societies, athletic insignia, leading roles in dramatic and musical presentations);
15. did not differ from the comparison group in the quality of adjustment to their contemporaries;
16. differed only slightly from the comparison group in the kinds of judgments about their schooling;
17. had a somewhat better orientation toward the choice of vocation;
18. demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world. [5]

[5] Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942), pp. 111–112.

The study thus completely denied the claims for various subjects that for generations have been used to justify the domination of the high school curriculum by these subjects, and encouraged efforts to provide a curriculum based on the needs of youth rather than on college prescriptions.

Other studies and agreements have followed. Leonard's review of the various studies, in 1945, concluded: "Clearly the assumption that college success depends on pursuing any prescribed subjects in high school cannot longer be accepted by thinking people." [6] Although colleges in general still have entrance requirements, and high schools still offer college-preparatory courses, interest in experimentation has undoubtedy been encouraged and extended by the Eight-Year Study and by similar studies. Other school-college agreements are now in effect, and perhaps we may eventually see a nation-wide standard of college admission for all high school graduates recommended by the faculties of their respective schools. The Michigan College Agreement, adopted in 1946 by the Michigan College Association and the Michigan Secondary School Association, provides that "the college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class." [7] Schools that qualify under this agreement must

1. maintain a personal file for each student for guidance purposes
2. provide for follow-up of drop-outs and graduates
3. include orientation to occupations or to college in the student's program
4. have a continuing curriculum study.

GENERAL-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

"General education" and "core curriculum" have come to be used almost synonymously to describe various types of curriculum reorganization designed to improve the elements of the high school curriculum common to all pupils. Usually their significant characteristics include some or all of the following:

1. Pupils are with the same teacher a longer period of time than under the traditional subject curriculum.
2. The general-education or core teacher assumes a distinct function of personal counseling for his pupils.
3. English and social-studies materials provide most of the subject-matter content of the general-education or core periods, and separate subject labels are to some extent erased.
4. Cooperative planning by teachers, and between teachers and pupils, is

[6] J. Paul Leonard, "Can We Face the Evidence on College-Entrance Requirements?" *School Review*, **53**:332 (June), 1945.

[7] "A Proposal Regarding Admission to Michigan Colleges and Universities," *Bulletin*, Michigan Secondary School Association, **10**:58 (November), 1946.

the procedure for determining the needs of youth and the experiences included in the program.

5. Emphasis is given to firsthand experiences, such as community studies, excursions, and group projects.

Thus the effort is to provide flexibility and purpose to the phases of the curriculum that are considered essential for all high school students. These phases, in their entirety, may be considered "general education;" the plan itself, or one major kind of plan, the "core curriculum."

WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

Another type of reorganization that received some attention before, and considerable impetus during, the war includes the various kinds of work-experience programs. Basic in this reorganization is a recognition of the changes in American society which have removed from the home the multitude of chores that once provided youngsters with the opportunity to learn to work. Also basic are the principles of growth and development that emphasize the importance of early assumption of responsibility by young persons and of work experience as a basis for the choice of occupations. Experimentation with work experience has included such diverse programs as cooperative training programs, school bureaus for part-time work, accelerated school schedules tied in with wartime industrial projects, community-service programs, and the sharing of miscellaneous jobs around the school. Although most programs have been concerned with actual job training, work experience is considered by many educators as an essential part of general education.

COMMUNITY-SCHOOL APPROACH

The reorganization of high schools as "community schools" is somewhat less tangible as a matter of programming than are core curriculum or work-experience programs. The emphasis on community schools in educational practice and literature includes such varied aspects as the following:

1. Establishment of evening, part-time, and continuation courses or other adult-education programs.
2. Expansion of the curriculum to include various vocational courses directly related to occupations of the community.
3. Organization of service activities designed to improve recreation, social work, health, and other phases of community life.
4. Enrichment of the curriculum to include study of the community and use of community facilities.

Thus the concept of community school really includes many types of administrative and curricular changes that may be initiated in connection with general-education or work-experience programs, or independ-

ently of any purpose other than improvement of school and community. Fundamentally, however, the effort is to meet the student's need for help in his problem of induction into community life.

STRUCTURAL REORGANIZATION

The reorganization of secondary education to include grades thirteen and fourteen may be considered an important effort to reorganize

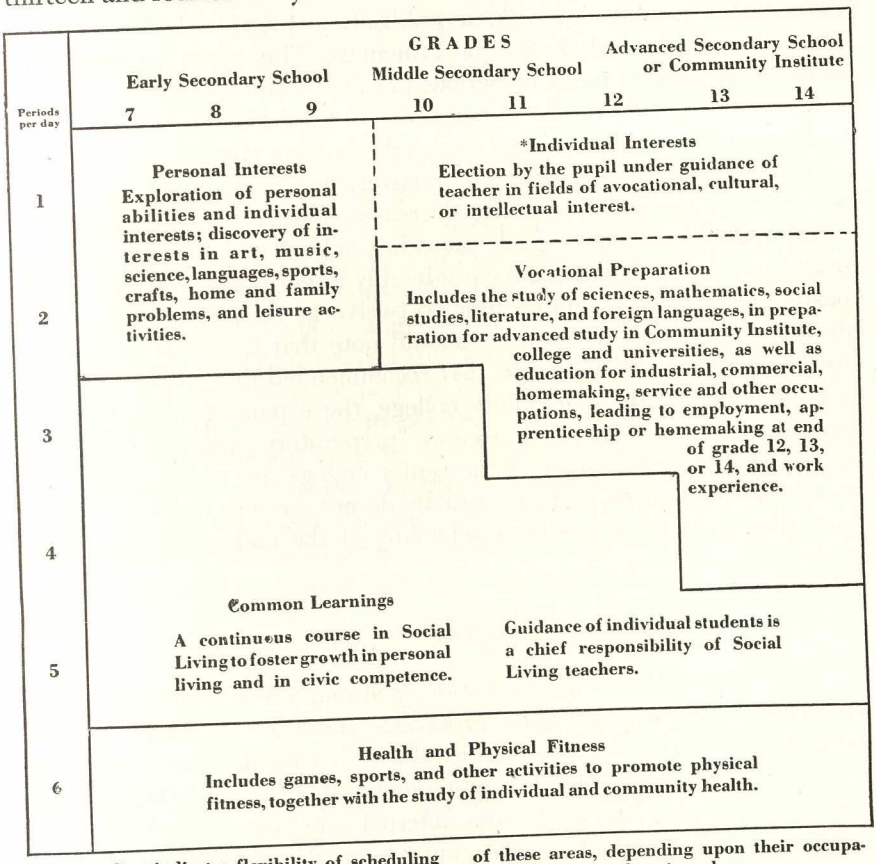


FIG. 5. THE CURRICULUM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN "AMERICAN CITY." "The curriculum in American City is divided into four major areas. The pupils . . . are at present working with a curriculum which contains the following major areas: personal interests, grades 7, 8, 9; individual interests, grades 10–14; vocational preparation, grades 10–14; common learnings, grades 7–14; health and physical fitness, grades 7–14." (Courtesy of *Planning for American Youth,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1944, p. 47)

the secondary school. Probably the chief arguments for this plan are (1) extension of educational opportunity for two years, and (2) improvement of the curriculum by providing time for more general education in

grades ten to twelve and more vocational education in grades thirteen and fourteen. Proponents of this plan point out that the existing secondary school provides inadequate time for both general and special-interest educational values and therefore usually fails to meet one or both categories of youth's needs.

The relationship of the expanded program of secondary education to general and special-interest purposes is shown in Figure 5, taken from *Planning for American Youth*, a publication (1944) of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. This chart proposes the relative emphasis, in terms of periods per day, to be given to major curriculum areas (really needs or purposes) in grades seven to fourteen in the hypothetical American City high school. Note that vocational preparation begins in grade ten and progressively increases as "common learnings" (that is, general education) decreases. This situation is in contrast to that in the usual twelve-grade secondary school, which either offers no vocational education or takes a considerably larger proportion of time for vocational purposes in grades nine to twelve at the expense of general education. In this connection we should note that the President's Commission on Higher Education in 1947 recommended that terminal courses be emphasized in the community college, the expansion of this institution also being recommended, because "preparatory programs looking to the more advanced courses of the senior college are not complete and rounded in themselves, and they usually do not serve well the purpose of those who must terminate their schooling at the end of the fourteenth grade."[8]

COMBINATION PROCEDURES

Few schools have consciously attempted to modify their curriculums by using only one of the procedures described. Probably the only sound approach to curriculum improvement is a combination procedure. Subjects may need to be added, and undoubtedly most subjects and activities need more or less continuous internal reorganization. Even when ambitious efforts are made, as they must be made to secure fundamental improvements, to reorganize the framework through core curriculums, work experience, or addition of grades, there will still be need to add new, and reorganize existing, subjects and activities not directly affected by changes in the framework. The real problem is to identify the needs of youth that can be served by the school and then to provide the best possible related experiences, regardless of their organizational characteristics.

[8] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, *Establishing the Goals* (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 68.

Curriculum Planning by Analysis of the Needs of Youth

In all the various efforts to change the curriculum, one consideration is common: to provide more fully for some present or future need or needs that young persons are believed to have. Increasingly in recent years curriculum changes have been based on direct and thoroughgoing analyses of the needs of youth. We should note, and will in this section, how important but difficult these analyses may be, and later we may accept one widely discussed analysis for purposes of considering the entire curriculum as it is and as it may become.

ANALYZING YOUR NEEDS AND YOUR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

As a high school graduate, and as a prospective high school teacher, you might find it interesting to answer for yourself whether the high school curriculum satisfies the needs of youth. Suppose you think back a few years to your first year in high school. What did you, at that time, think you needed in high school? Did you feel any need of the subjects, such as mathematics, language, history, and literature, that you probably took? Did your needs really include the memory work you did for recitations or for tests, or perhaps just because it was assigned? What about all the lectures you heard, the facts you were tested on, the recitations you perhaps found so boresome? Were you conscious of any needs such as wholesome recreation, information regarding personal problems, and friendships, for which your high school made too little provision? Perhaps at from fourteen to eighteen years of age you thought, if indeed you ever considered the matter, that your high school took care of your needs very well. But what do you think now? How many times since entering college have you found fault with your high school because you need some skill, understanding, or attitude you might have acquired in high school?

You may easily extend this analysis to the entire problem of building a high school curriculum on the needs of youth. Try to look ahead a few years to the time when you are making a living, whether in teaching or some other vocation. What will you then believe you needed in high school? What did your parents and other adults think high school youth needed? As a mature adult, what will you think high school youth need in order to prepare them for work? for voting? for family life? for play? As a taxpayer, what will you want your school taxes to be spent for?

The complexity of the problem will be even clearer if you think of the majority of your classmates who did not go on to college. What did they need in high school? What important learnings have you acquired in college that these noncollege youth also need? Too, what about the many classmates who dropped out of high school before graduation? What did they need and miss?

You will probably decide that your high school did not meet all your needs, as you now believe them to be, or as you then believed or will later believe them to be. The needs of youth are complex and varied, and too frequently not directly related to the matters dealt with in the traditional program of studies offered by the high school. Yet your own analysis should reveal the differences in needs as conceived of by high school students and as conceived by adults, and thus the nature of the problem of building a curriculum on the needs of youth. Who or what determines the needs?

DO YOUNG PEOPLE NEED SUBJECTS OR HELP IN SOLVING LIFE PROBLEMS?

Suppose it should be possible for you to organize a completely new institution for the education of children who have completed six or eight years of elementary education; what kind of institution would you have? Suppose this institution could offer whatever curriculum you chose as best meeting the needs of youth. What would you include in the curriculum? Subjects or something else?

This is the problem of every secondary school, except for one important difference: such a completely new institution has never been organized in the United States. As related earlier, the Latin grammar school, the academy, and the high school all had unique characteristics, but each successive institution took over some features of the other. Today we find it difficult to talk or plan or write about a program of secondary education except in terms of the program we have known in our American high schools. "The curriculum," to most people, including teachers, is "the program of studies" described in Chapter XI. The program of studies has been essentially an academic one—that is, the curriculum has consisted largely of logically organized subjects.

Another principle of curriculum planning has, however, come to be accepted, and it may provide a different approach to solving the problem posed in the first paragraph of this chapter: the common curriculum elements, or general education, should be planned in terms of the common needs of youth. Even this principle, though, may be used to rationalize the typical pattern of subjects, for it may be argued that all young persons need English, history, general mathematics, and other subjects commonly required. There are really two utterly different points of view here, and they are

1. All young persons need to learn certain formal subjects.
2. All young persons need the skills and understandings that will best enable them to solve life problems.

One point of view assumes that the study of the traditional subjects within itself assures the ability to solve life problems; the other point of

view assumes that skills and understandings, whether included in the formal subjects, will have to be selected and acquired as indicated by the life problems experienced or anticipated by the individual. On the one hand the starting point is the subject, and on the other it is the analysis of the life problems or needs of individuals. Note that for curriculum-planning purposes we are defining a need of youth as "a life problem experienced or anticipated by youth."

We may illustrate these opposing points of view and their implications for curriculum planning by comparing two approaches to the study of American history. If the point of view is that the study of American history as a subject will assure the ability to solve life problems, instruction will be, as it usually is, so organized as to insure the maximum and most efficient mastery of the facts of the course. Ordinarily, the course will be organized chronologically; the textbook, containing the facts, is the basis of study; the procedure is reading and discussion of (or reciting on) the text; and evaluation is concerned with determining how well the individual has learned the material regarded as essential.

If, on the other hand, the point of view is that young persons should acquire such skills and understandings as are essential to interpreting and solving problems of American citizenship, instruction will be organized around these problems; current materials will be used intensively with historical materials for reference; class procedure will be discussion of the problems; and evaluation will be concerned with determining how well the individual has acquired skills and understanding essential, not because they are in the text or course, but because they are "keys" to the problems studied.

That is, if we assume that what young persons need is to learn the facts of American history, the curriculum should be planned to teach these facts as efficiently as possible. However, if we believe that the real need of students is to learn to interpret American problems, the direct approach is to study American problems with the emphasis of the study placed on essential skills and understandings. We should note, however, that many high school teachers of American history would consider their primary purpose that of developing a background for interpreting current national problems. But "background" is a meaningless word when the pupils are not aware of a relation between the history they study and the national problems of the times.

To summarize, we may organize the curriculum through either of two general approaches: (1) we may analyze the usual subjects included in the high school curriculum and require of all high school youngsters the subjects believed to have general value, or (2) we may analyze the needs (as life problems) of youth and provide in the curriculum the subjects, activities, or experiences that seem most closely related to the common or general needs. The first approach has been most commonly

practiced, but the second seems soundest philosophically. At the same time it is clear that the second approach may eventuate in a curriculum similar to that derived from the first, because the various subjects may be considered essential in meeting the common needs. The important matter is that there be a *continuous* analysis of life problems and of the related curriculum so that the latter will never acquire the static qualities of the traditional school program.

SOME CONFUSIONS AND CONFLICTS

As we attempt to analyze the needs of youth and plan a curriculum accordingly, we soon run into a number of difficulties, some of them philosophical, others merely matters of definition. Much of the difficulty lies in the different concepts of needs and of the relation of need and curriculum. In order to clarify these conflicts and confusions and to have a defensible basis for our own analysis, we should briefly examine certain underlying questions and issues and state definitely the points of view held by the authors.

Should all the needs of youth be met by the school curriculum? The needs of youth are diverse and many, although they can be readily classified into a few basic categories. Individual adolescents have individual needs that are different at least in degree and time of occurrence. Some needs, such as those of nourishment, affection, and immediate financial security, cannot be met entirely, if at all, by the school. Some needs may be met much more adequately by parents and home, church, youth organizations, and other agencies than by the schools. Therefore the authors do not propose that all needs of youth be met through the school curriculum. Rather it is proposed that the curriculum should (1) provide experiences in as many areas of need as the school can efficiently and adequately deal with either alone or in cooperation with other social institutions and agencies; (2) permit necessary variations in accordance with the needs of particular individuals and groups within particular schools and communities.

Can needs be anticipated in curriculum planning? An extreme position in educational philosophy holds that curriculum planning must be done "on the spot," that is, with and by a particular group, since the specific needs of individuals vary according to the person, the time, and the place. This position really denies the validity of most studies of the needs of youth, because these studies show clearly that certain basic needs are common to all young persons at all times and in all places. The authors, however, are as thoroughly in disagreement with the position at the other extreme, namely, that all needs of youth can be met by a prescribed program of instruction in certain required subjects. The most defensible position is that a general curriculum framework can and should be planned around the known common needs, with a high de-

gree of flexibility and experimentation possible in the use of this framework. Because of differences in environmental conditions and social factors, the way of satisfying needs may vary greatly from locality to locality.

How can we differentiate between common and individual needs? Several bases of differentiation have been employed in studies of needs and in curriculum planning. Some theorists would recognize

PLATE 18

THE QUESTION BOX. One way to determine the needs of individual students. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

only the needs actually "felt" by individual young persons. If this type of planning is followed to its ultimate conclusion, common needs would exist in a particular group only if all members "felt" the same need at the same time. Another theory would consider as individual only needs that arose from unique characteristics of a particular individual; common needs, in this belief, would be pure coincidence. Still another point of view would classify as the needs of youth all persistent life problems of human beings that are experienced or anticipated by all young persons, and consider the incidence of these problems to particular individuals as individual needs.

This last conception seems to provide the most satisfactory basis for

curriculum planning, although it obviously gives considerable weight to the needs of youth that are created by the impact of society on the individual. Under this concept the need to make a living would be regarded as a common need of youth, because it is a persistent life problem that is experienced or anticipated by all or most young persons. To one person this need may come early and acutely because of lack of family income; to another it may be a vague concern of the future of which the student is sufficiently aware to feel some need of choosing a vocation. These are individual instances of the occurrence of the need and would be regarded by the authors as examples of individual needs.

How can we identify the needs of youth that should be met through general rather than specialized education? The authors do not find any accurate dividing line between needs for general and needs for specialized education. The need to make a living, for example, can be and usually is met by both general and specialized education. The only convenient and defensible differentiation is in the two programs. "General education" is primarily concerned with the skills and understandings that will best enable all young persons to solve life problems. A program of general education is therefore defined by analysis of persistent life problems and of the skills and understandings needed by all young persons to solve these problems. Students will vary in the extent of their need for and attainment of such skills and understanding, but the analysis does provide a common framework of the curriculum within which adaptations will be made for the individual. "Specialized education," on the other hand, is primarily concerned with the skills and understandings that will best enable the individual, in the light of his interests and capacities, to solve life problems involving special competencies.

Thus all youth need understanding of work, of various occupations, and of specialization itself, and a common framework of general education could provide opportunities for all youth to acquire these understandings. However, the need to make a living also presses each individual, in terms of his interests and capacities, to specialize in some vocation, and his vocational training is specialized education. Therefore any broad common need may be met in part by general education, which sets up a framework of skills and understandings for young persons to acquire in terms of their individual needs, and in part by specialized education, which provides specific training programs for individuals in terms of their individual interests and capacities. For this reason, the need for, and nature of, specialized education may be greatly affected by the quality of the general-education program, that is, by the provision made by general education for identifying and exploring special interests and capacities. Hence the point may be defended that specialized education is not opposed to, but actually is an outgrowth of, general education. The real distinction is between the common framework of general education for

all youth and the individualized pattern of specialized education of many types, each type to serve a relatively small, homogeneous group of students of similar interests.

STUDIES OF NEEDS

The literature of secondary education includes a large body of studies that attempt to identify the needs of youth as a basis for educational planning. These materials are of varied types that we may classify as follows:

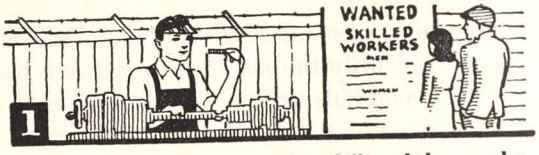
1. Studies of individual developmental needs, such as Caroline B. Zachry's *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence* (Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940), Paul H. Landis' *Adolescence and Youth* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945), Daniel H. Prescott's *Emotion and the Educative Process* (American Council on Education, 1938), Arthur T. Jersild's *Child Development and the Curriculum* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946); and National Society for Study of Education, *Adolescence*, Part I, Forty-third Yearbook, 1944.

2. Surveys of youth problems or needs, such as Howard M. Bell's *Youth Tell Their Story* (American Council on Education, 1938), C. Gilbert Wrenn and D. L. Harley's *Time on Their Hands* (American Council on Education, 1941), Ruth E. Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall's *When Youth Leave School* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939).

3. Analyses of social conditions with their implications for youth and education, such as the Educational Policies Commission's *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy* (National Education Association, 1941), Harold O. Rugg's *That Men May Understand* (Doubleday Doran, 1941), George S. Count's *Education and the Promise of America* (The Macmillan Company, 1945).

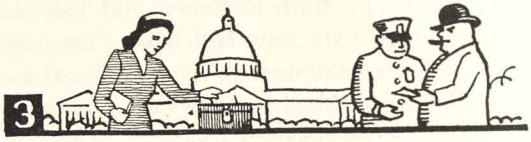
4. Analysis of the curriculum implications of the needs of youth such as Donald C. Doane's *The Needs of Youth* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942), The Educational Policies Commission's *Education for All American Youth* (The Commission, 1944) and the companion volume, *Planning for American Youth* (The National Education Association, 1944).

We will not attempt to review the various studies here, but teachers can well afford to read several of them. They contain no absolute answer to the question: What are the needs of high school youth? In these studies, statements of the needs of youth vary from long lists of minutely specific needs to broadly stated general needs. For purposes of curriculum planning, both types of statements have a place: (1) the broad general statements as categories of life problems in accordance with which equally general curriculum plans may be made; and (2) the highly specific statements as check lists for the needs of particular young persons and for development and analysis of detailed curriculum plans.

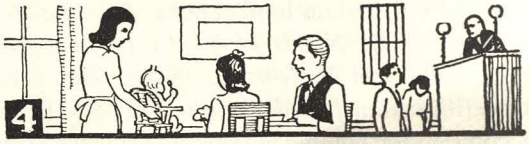


All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

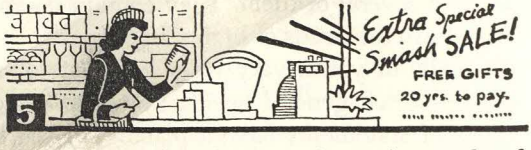
All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.



All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.



All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.



All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

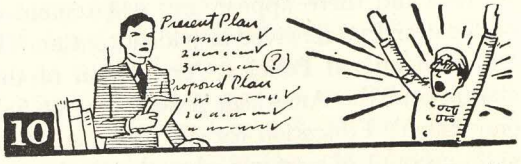
FIG. 6. THE IMPERATIVE NEEDS OF YOUTH (Courtesy of *Planning for American*

All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others.



All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

Youth, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1944, p. 43)

Analysis of these studies also shows that the needs of youth are generally regarded as being determined by: (1) the biological organism, (2) the cultural environment, or (3) the interaction of the organism with the environment. For purposes of curriculum planning, it seems essential to consider the needs of youth as those determined by the third point of view, since education is a social process operating to improve the interactions of individuals and their environments. Furthermore, the interaction theory recognizes both the biological and cultural influences on the individual.

SUMMARY

The problem of building a curriculum based on youth's needs is complicated by confusions as to the process of identifying needs, as well as by difficulties in relating the school program to these needs. However, life problems experienced or anticipated by youth can be identified by the schools and to some extent anticipated in curriculum planning. The problems that are common to all young persons constitute common needs and should provide the framework of general education. As the educational program seeks to help individual adolescents in the light of their unique capacities to develop special competencies with certain life problems, specialized education is provided. Various studies of the needs of youth help curriculum planners in determining the framework of the curriculum and in appraising specific plans for individuals.

Imperative Educational Needs of Youth

From time to time in the history of American education certain important national committees or other bodies have made pronouncements that have been widely accepted as bases for educational planning at various levels. For example, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918 issued a report, the "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," which gained national acceptance as a statement of the aims of secondary education. These aims, to which secondary schools increasingly directed their programs, were health, command of the fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, civic education, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character.

Not until 1944 did there appear any restatement of the objectives of secondary education that received as wide attention. The new statement came from the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. The Commission's *Education for All American Youth*, cleverly purporting to be an account of postwar educational planning with its major chapters "written five years after the cessation of hostilities," reports that American City's Commission on postwar education had used the ten "imperative educational needs of youth" in its program planning in sec-

ondary schools. These needs are listed in Figure 6, from *Planning for American Youth*.[9]

This statement of the needs of youth and, in fact, both *Education for All American Youth* and *Planning for American Youth* have been widely studied as a basis for the reorganization of secondary education. In view of the list's common use by study and planning groups in American secondary education and in view of the close relationship between the ten needs in this list and those revealed by most other studies, the authors propose to examine the present secondary curriculum in terms of its provisions for each of these needs. As indicated by the accompanying illustration, each need is a common need as we have defined it earlier, that is, "a persistent life problem that is experienced or anticipated by all or most youth." These needs as defined can lead to flexible curriculum plans for developing desired skills and understandings by all youth and special competencies by some.

CURRICULUM ELEMENTS AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

In Chapter XI, curriculum was defined as "the life and program of the school." Since it is difficult, if not impossible, to study the total school program in relation to either or all ten imperative educational needs, it is convenient at this point to identify the various observable learning situations or elements of the curriculum. In visiting schools it is convenient to distinguish between learning situations on the basis of their organizing centers or bases, and learning situations on the basis of their physical location. In every school one should find some, if not all, instruction organized *around subjects or core* and taking place *in classrooms*. For convenience, one might observe (1) the organization of the subject or core—divisions, sequence, and materials, and (2) the organization of the classroom—physical facilities, relationships among students, and procedures.

However, what each student actually learns will be the result of a process of goal seeking in which the goal (his problem), the information (used to solve the problem), and the method (used to secure the information) are inseparable and constantly changing because new information may alter the problem or the method may become the goal, or the information may show the way for a new method. Hence the distinction between subject and classroom organization exists only in the mind of the observer; to the learner "what" is discussed or read or seen and "how" it is discussed or read or seen are not discrete parts of the learning process. How the subject is organized and how the classroom is organized, however, are problems that the teacher may approach some-

[9] See Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 225–226, for the Commission's listing of these needs.

what separately. In this book the authors wish to help the prospective teacher find effective ways of organizing learning situations so that learning by his future pupils may be facilitated.

For convenience in observation and analysis, we might study any high school in terms of its provision of the following "curriculum elements":

1. Subjects for general education purposes (see Chapter XIII)
2. Subjects for specialized education purposes (see Chapter XIV)
3. Core curriculum—again, for general education purposes (see Chapter XV)
4. Work-experience programs (see Chapter XVI)
5. Classroom organization and procedures (see Chapter XVII)
6. Out-of-class school activities (see Chapter XVIII)
7. Community activities (see Chapter XIX)
8. Guidance programs and other special services (see Chapter XX).

In most schools we would find some of these elements more clearly defined than others, and in all schools we would find certain elements closely interwoven. We must note again, however, that this division, artificial as it may be, of the curriculum into curriculum elements is a convenience in observation and analysis. The purposes of this division are (1) to assist you in observing practices in high schools you visit, (2) to provide a basis for organizing the subsequent chapters of this book that deal with curriculum, and (3) to check the possible provisions of the high school curriculum for the ten imperative educational needs. This check is made in the accompanying table and in more detail, by each need, in the following sections. Also, each subsequent chapter deals with a curriculum element, analyzing its present status in American high schools, its relationship to the needs of youth, and basic principles for its future improvement.

The accompanying table is intended as a quick reference to answer these questions: "By what curriculum elements *can* provision be made for Need No. 1 (etc.)?" Note that the numbers of the needs in Table 18 are the same as those in Figure 6, and those used in the following sections, and that the "X" indicates that the authors believe the need *can be* (not is) provided for by the curriculum element involved.

Need No. 1—Salable Skills. "*All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.*" Need No. 1 is probably cited more frequently in studies of youth than is any other need. At the same time, our analysis of the program of studies in Chapter XI showed that the traditional high school curriculum makes virtually no provision for

vocational orientation or education except for the college-going youth and a small minority of other students. That is, college-preparatory courses may be considered to have a vocational purpose for young persons who plan to take professional courses in college. For the large proportion of high school students who do not go to college, this need can be met only through one or more of the following curriculum provisions:

TABLE 18

What Curriculum Element *Can* Provide for Each Imperative Need?

IMPERATIVE NEED*	CURRICULUM ELEMENTS							
	SUBJECTS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION	SUBJECTS FOR SPECIALIZED EDUCATION	CORE—GENERAL EDUCATION	WORK EXPERIENCE	CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION	OUT-OF-CLASS SCHOOL ACTIVITIES	SCHOOL-COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	GUIDANCE AND OTHER SPECIAL SERVICES
1. Salable Skills	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
2. Health and Physical Fitness	X		X			X		X
3. Citizenship	X		X	X	X	X	X	
4. Family Life	X		X		X	X	X	X
5. Consumer Problems	X	X	X	X			X	
6. Science	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
7. Appreciation of Beauty	X	X	X			X	X	X
8. Leisure Time	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
9. Cooperation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
10. Thinking and Communicating	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

* See text for complete statement of need.

1. Study of occupations and of economic life in the general-education program, either through the organized subjects, especially social studies, or through the core curriculum.

2. Specific prevocational or vocational courses in a particular skill such as stenography, retailing, agriculture, cafeteria management, service trades, mechanics, and printing.

3. Experience in one or more vocations by means of supervised apprenticeships, vacation jobs, school assistantships, or other types of work-experience programs, and through community-service projects and activities such as drives, campaigns, and public programs.

4. Guidance of youth in choice of occupations through interviews, interest and aptitude tests, group study of occupations, job placement, and related procedures.

Need No. 2—Health and Physical Fitness. *"All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness."* A good program of health and physical education is usually considered to include (1) adequate health services, that is, physical examinations and follow-up medical

attention, (2) instruction in health practices, and (3) various physical-education activities designed to provide adequate exercise and recreation. Analysis of the average high school program reveals that the first two elements, health services and health instruction, are either omitted or largely neglected, whereas the third, physical education, is usually required by law or regulation. However, studies made by the United States Office of Education indicated that even in the war year 1943–1944 only 50.1 per cent of the boys in the last two years of high school were enrolled in physical education and only 46.7 per cent of the girls.[10]

Study of practices in better-supported schools and of innovations brought about by wartime pressures for better physical qualifications of draftees offers convincing evidence of the possibilities of providing for Need No. 2 through curriculum elements as follows:

1. Basic health instruction and physical-education activities may be included as prominent offerings in the subject curriculum for general education, in separate courses or in a single course, or through emphases on health instruction in various courses such as biology, and home economics, and physical education itself.

2. Core-curriculum plans can and frequently do base many units of instruction on problems of personal health.

3. The program of extraclass activities can include intramural sports, competitive sports, various types of optional physical activities, and ROTC training.

4. One of the most important special services the school can provide is that of health—physical examinations and other services of nurses and doctors and mental hygienists.

Need No. 3.—Citizenship. "All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation." Need No. 3 has been the primary aim of publicly supported education in the United States. To our country's founders, education for citizenship meant education for literacy, and our first public schools were reading schools. Literacy has continued to be a fundamental aim, but the concept of citizenship and youth's need for education in citizenship has broadened considerably. Citizenship has come to include, in addition to such obvious responsibilities as voting and tax paying, participation in various civic, political, and other open public groups that are concerned with lawmaking and law enforcement, and in the affairs of the schools and other public institutions. The field of education for citizenship is almost as broad as education itself, and Need No. 3 can hardly be considered apart from several other needs, especially

[10] "Per cent of Boys and Girls in Last 2 Years of High School Enrolled in Physical Education and in Health Education" (chart), *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 134, **29**:52 (December), 1945.

those listed as No. 9 and No. 10. Consequently, almost every curriculum element has a potentially direct contribution to the making of the citizen. For purposes of this analysis we may consider the need for citizenship the need for skills and understandings that will make the individual an intelligent and positive participant in public affairs.

With this definition in mind, we can rapidly identify certain ways in which the high school may contribute to the making of citizens. That to date the school has not been wholly successful is attested by our many "poor" citizens who break laws, or fail to vote, or oppose constructive civic action, or inadequately finance public education, or who are civic "parasites," because they drain off public funds to protect the public against their crimes, their lack of industry, or their carelessness. Since these "poor" citizens may have attended high school, the school must accept some blame for their failure in citizenship. If they did not attend school, the school may have been to blame for not having attracted them.

How can the curriculum provide for the making of citizens, as just defined? Why not list your ideas on this subject? How do your ideas as to what the schools might do compare with what your school actually did for you? Would you agree that a well-supported, good high school, regardless of location and size (beyond some minimum of perhaps 300 students), could include in its curriculum such provisions as these:

1. Observation and experience through work projects, classroom activities, extraclassroom projects, and community service activities, in the conduct of group organizations, such as

a. Associations of employees
b. School classes and clubs
c. Student government organizations
d. Associations of parents, teachers, and students
e. School and community governing bodies and boards
f. Service and welfare organizations

2. Study in the regular classes in social studies (history, government, civics, and the like) and also in core-curriculum plans, of the principles and problems of American democracy, and of the role of citizens in solving our local, state, and national problems, such as

a. Election of qualified public officials and representatives
b. Maintenance of adequate tax programs
c. Elimination of health and safety hazards, poor housing, and similar community eyesores
d. Prevention of crime, delinquency, poverty, and disease
e. Provision of employment, industrial efficiency, and social security

Need No. 4—Family Life. "All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions

conducive to family life." What did you learn about family life in high school? Unless your experience was exceptional, your high school offered little direct assistance with this need. Perhaps you were not aware that you needed to prepare for family life, but what about the large number of your classmates who dropped out of school to marry or who have married since graduation? Most studies indicate that young persons need real help in matters of boy-and-girl relationships, selection of mates, and good family living. Yet most school curriculums neglect this need except for inclusion of a few scattered topics or units in such courses as sociology, health, and home economics. A well-organized curriculum plan could include many provisions directly relating to this need:

1. The general-education subjects or the core-curriculum plan may assure direct consideration by all high school students of such problems as

   a. The function of the family and home in American life
   b. The social problems created by divorce
   c. Factors that make family living happy and successful
   d. Biological processes and principles involved in family living

2. All organized school activities can be so directed and executed as to promote rather than prohibit good boy-and-girl relationships, to encourage the development of good standards of social behavior, and to prevent individual young persons from becoming social outsiders.

3. In large communities, tours, interviews, and special studies may be arranged to give students information about broken homes, juvenile delinquency, standards of family living, and agencies and institutions that assist families with their problems.

4. Guidance and other special services have a real contribution to make in helping the young persons solve physical, mental, and emotional problems that may interfere with successful family life. Among these problems are the students' educational planning for family living, unhappy home situations created by the parents' marital difficulties, the students' marriage plans, and sexual relationships.

Need No. 5.—Consumer Problems. "*All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.*" If we assume that the most common and recurrent activities of adults should receive a commensurate emphasis in the curriculum, consumer education should have a large place. Consumption of goods and services, involving their budgeting, buying, and use, occupies more time in the life of the average person than does perhaps any other life activity except earning a living.

Did consumer education receive such emphasis in your high school curriculum? With no intention of being meanly critical of the usual

school program, we might safely generalize that the average high school graduate has spent much more time in school learning how to write correct sentences than how to make shopping lists, how to read blank verse than how to read labels, how to check chemical formulas than how to check weights and measures. Yet modern life in and out of school offers every opportunity for study of consumer problems, and all that is needed to assure provision of these methods of consumer education is a planned attack by the school faculty, such as the following:

1. Inclusion in both general and specialized subjects and core classes of such problems as budgeting; credit and installment buying; insurance; common measures of retail goods; grades of food; quality standards; economical foods, clothes, and furnishings; repair of household equipment; consumer organizations and aids.

2. Attention in work projects not only to the skills of the worker but to the problems of the consumer who ultimately buys the product involved, that is, study of consumer costs by high school students working in retail establishments, shops, cafeterias, and other businesses whose products are bought by consumers.

3. Activities of youth in the community can include surveys of prices and costs, of protections for consumers and of consumer organizations, and direct investigation in the community of such consumer problems as those listed here as topics for study in the high school classes.

Need No. 6.—Science. "All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man." No nation can today discount the influence of science in determining the nature of civilization. By 1941 scientific developments had gone far toward bringing satisfactory living standards to the United States and many other sections of the world. World War II witnessed great expansions of science to create atomic bombs and other instruments of death and destruction powerful enough to wipe out all that constructive scientific effort had previously developed. Now, in the postwar period, we again have the opportunity to harness science and technology for humanitarian purposes.

Equally important for education is the method of science as a procedure of thought, investigation, and social action. We must remember, however, that even in this scientific age many Americans still explain various scientific phenomena on the basis of superstition. Modern adolescents can and must understand science, its methods and products, if they are to have successful interaction with their fellows and their society. Already the school curriculum has made provision for the study of science, and it remains only to increase these provisions to assure coverage for all young persons by the following means:

1. Study in the general science subjects and in the core curriculum, of the scientific explanations of such varied science problems as biological development, natural resources and conservation, forms and sources of power, machines and energy, transportation and communication.

2. Study in the prevocational courses of the scientific principles and processes involved in specific vocations, for example, study of physics by the pre-engineering student and the study of advanced chemistry by students planning careers in laboratory work or chemical research or dietetics.

3. Application of the method of science (that is, the testing of hypotheses and the drawing of conclusions) to problems encountered in classroom discussions, in student organizations, in community studies, and in guidance conferences or occupational investigations. Actually, science as a method of study, investigation, and discussion can be the method of education in all curriculum elements. Use of this method, of course, is contrary to the "deductive" or "telling" method still commonly practiced in classrooms.

4. Study of science in nonclassroom situations by means of science clubs, gardening and farming projects, excursions to museums, industries, and so forth.

Need No. 7.—Appreciation of Beauty. "All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature." The average American high school misses a first opportunity to develop an appreciation of beauty because it fails to provide an environment that is itself beautiful. Furthermore, it may be found deficient in terms of Need No. 7 for its inability to provide classes in art and music for all students, and is sometimes criticized for classes in literature that discourage rather than encourage youth to find beauty in literature. Probably the real test of the curriculum as to its provision for Need No. 7 is the extent to which young persons are encouraged by schools to find beauty. A list of questions proposed in relation to Need No. 7 in the March, 1947, *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals might give a basis for judging your own high school (or college) curriculum or the curriculum of some school that you may visit, where you may raise these questions:

1. To what kinds of radio music programs does the student listen of his own accord?
2. What musical events has he attended recently on his own initiative?
3. How much and what does he read when he can do as he pleases?
4. How many and what books of literary quality are taken out of the library monthly by the students?
5. What is the demand from the students for books of literary quality at the community library?
6. What changes are there in the grooming of students?

7. How many students a month visit the art museum on their own initiative?

8. What pictures are on the walls of the students' rooms?

9. How many students have sought advice at school on plans for beautifying their homes?

10. How many students report voluntary excursions to camps, farms, and similar reception rooms of Mother Nature? [11]

Most curriculum elements can offer real opportunities for students to develop these appreciations. For example, such provisions as these are possible:

1. Courses in art, music, and literature in which *appreciation* and *not performance* is the purpose.

2. Study of peoples through their art, music, and literature, in the classes in history, geography, and English and language, and in core classes.

3. For students with special competence, special courses designed to make or help make musicians, artists, and writers.

4. Encouragement of students in their clubs, assemblies, publications, tours, and other out-of-class activities to share with others beauty found in local museums and galleries, or in the physical surroundings, or in paintings, slides, films, relics, records, radio, and other sources.

5. Counseling techniques to identify students who particularly need help in developing appreciations and also those who have special competencies that should be encouraged and developed.

Need No. 8.—Leisure Time. "All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful." What provision did your school make for developing wholesome leisure-time activities? The first criticism to be made of the typical school is that no leisure time is actually provided for in the schedule, although most youngsters may actually make such time for themselves in the school day. Furthermore, the typical school lacks adequate facilities for wise use of leisure whether time is provided by the schedule or "made" by students. Yet, because of the reduction in working hours, the average adult today has several more hours a day for leisure activities than had the adult of a generation ago.

Schools do make various efforts to provide for this need. All provisions for Need No. 7 also serve Need No. 8, because many adults devote their leisure to art, music, literature, and scenery. However, we may note several additional possibilities:

1. Leisure time is an appropriate problem for study in the general subject and core classes, that is, the fact of leisure and the social prob-

[11] H. H. Ryan, "Imperative Need Number Seven," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 145, **31**:102 (March), 1947.

lems involved; types of leisure activities, and their relative desirability; leisure activities available in the community; safety practices in driving and other leisure pursuits.

2. The school organization, classroom and extraclassroom, can facilitate planning for leisure by providing free time and suitable facilities for use of this time. Ideally, the facilities would include "browsing" rooms in the school library; necessary facilities for such sports as swimming, bowling, table tennis, softball, dancing; game rooms for bridge, chess, and checkers; rooms fitted for radio, recordings, and films; and out-of-door facilities for hiking, camping, and the like.

3. The program of out-of-class activities, in and out of school, should be as broad as the interests of students and the facilities of school and community permit: various hobby clubs, intramural sports, social affairs, and visits to theaters and other wholesome entertainment centers.

4. A prominent problem of the guidance program should be to determine the leisure interests of young persons and to encourage the establishment of wholesome interests wherever they are lacking.

Need No. 9.—Cooperation. "All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others." Need No. 9 describes a way of living rather than a single phase of life activity. Cooperation can exist in all life activities involving more than one person. Similarly, every element of the school curriculum offers opportunity for learning about and practising cooperative action. We can analyze the essential characteristics of people whose way of life is governed by cooperation, and then note examples of how these characteristics may be exemplified or studied in each curriculum element. A cooperative person

1. Respects the personality, opinion, and wishes of those with whom he associates.

2. Acts in accordance with the best interests of every group with which he is associated.

3. Determines his standards of values in terms of the interests of his group.

4. Makes decisions after consideration of their consequences for all persons affected.

5. Recognizes the contributions to group welfare of all members of the group.

6. Makes only constructive criticisms of the acts of other persons, and bases these criticisms on group standards.

The following examples indicate how these characteristics may be studied or practiced in the various curriculum elements:

1. The subject and core classes.—Emphasis in the cooperative selection of content can be given to the role of group action in man's

achievements, his literature, his control of environment, and his arts and crafts and industries.

2. Work experience.—Supervisors can demonstrate how increased efficiency in work results from cooperative relationships and efforts of workers.

3. Classroom organization.—Problems for group investigation and discussion can be determined cooperatively by the group.

4. Nonclassroom activities.—Democratic procedures can be used in the selection of officers and projects, in the organization and execution of such varied activities as publications, assemblies, and clean-up campaigns, and in the evaluation of all activities.

5. Guidance.—Guidance workers can demonstrate in every conference with students the essential characteristics of a cooperative person.

Need No. 10.—Thinking and Communicating. "All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding." Are you satisfied with your ability to think rationally, to express your thoughts clearly, and to understand what you read and hear? Need No. 10 is central in the lives of all persons, and central in the program of all schools. The frequent election of demagogues to public office, the poor speech habits, and the inadequate reading of the average adult indicate how far the schools have yet to go in meeting this need. Critical analysis of the school curriculum suggests a number of deficiencies that can be remedied by a school-wide program embodying these features:

1. Clear thinking, expression, and understanding should be conscious major objectives of every teacher and class. Thinking can be just as important in history as in mathematics; expression, as important in salesmanship as in dramatics; reading, as important in consumer economics as in literature.

2. Every work project should be utilized to impress the relation of effective communication to effective results in all types of work in which directions must be understood, people must be dealt with, or problems must be thought through—that is, in all types of work.

3. The organization of all youth activities whether in or out of school and class can be developed so that it will give young persons practice in communicating with one another, in setting standards of expression and communication, and in evaluating their performance.

4. A major objective of every teacher, language specialist, psychologist, and counselor in his work with individual students should be to determine needs of improvement in thinking, expression, and understanding and to help students find means of making the improvements.

SUMMARY

Examination of potential provisions in the curriculum for the ten imperative educational needs indicates that the secondary school has adequate opportunity to give all students great help. Few, if any of these schools are actually meeting all the needs discussed. The authors, however, believe that secondary teachers and others concerned with the school program have potential resources sufficient to help all young persons develop the abilities they require in meeting their imperative needs. Subsequent chapters will deal with the status and possibilities of secondary education with respect to each of the curriculum elements.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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This one volume summarizes the study, conducted by the Progressive Education Association, of experimental practices in thirty high schools and of the relations between these schools and the colleges. See especially Chapter V, "What Happened in College?"

Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947.
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General report by the Commission of its six years of study of youth problems in the United States. See Chapters VI to XIII for analyses of youth needs and educational implications.

"A Statement of the Health Needs of School-Age Pupils and Recommendations for Implementation," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 134, 29:37–56 (December), 1945.
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Basler, Roosevelt, "Life Adjustment Education for Youth," *School Life*, 30:3–6 (November), 1947.
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XIII THE SUBJECTS IN GENERAL EDUCATION

An adequate treatment of American secondary education must devote considerable attention to the various subjects, for the subjects have traditionally been the curriculum of secondary education. Even now, although recent curriculum reorganization has emphasized other curriculum elements, the subjects still occupy a central place in the school program. Most subjects serve both the common needs of all high school students (general education) and the specialized needs of the individual student for particular skills (specialized education). We can sharpen our analysis of the various subjects by considering them in terms of these two purposes. In Chapter XIII we shall discuss the phases of these subjects that primarily serve the purpose of general education; in Chapter XIV, only the phases that are primarily specialized in purpose; and in Chapter XV we shall be concerned with another phase of general education—the core curriculum.

For each subject we shall try to answer these three questions:

1. What are the general characteristics of instruction in the subject?
2. How does the subject, as generally presented, relate to the needs of high school students?
3. What principles may be suggested for relating the subject adequately to the needs of high school students?

English

THE PROGRAM

English is the most common high school subject, universally offered, universally required at least to some degree, and taken by the majority of all high school students in every grade. Three units in grades nine to twelve are commonly required for college entrance, and frequently three or even four units for high school graduation. Jessen's analysis of high school enrollments in 1937 showed that about 90 per cent of all high school pupils were enrolled in the regular English courses with many of the other 10 per cent taking special English courses.[1] The recent studies of state enrollments reviewed in Chapter XI indicate that the enrollment in English classes has not dropped. This subject then has the

[1] Earl A. Jessen, "Registrations in Language," *School Life*, **23**:22–23 (September), 1937.

favored place in the curriculum for general education, and through it we should expect to satisfy a maximum number of common needs experienced or anticipated by all high school pupils.

A great deal of study has been given in recent years to the reorganization of secondary English—so much, in fact, that it is difficult to make general statements as to what is or should be included in English. For example, in an effort to bring about improvements in all schools, in 1947 the National Council of Teachers of English began a nation-wide study of the curriculum in language arts from the kindergarten through the college. We know, of course, that English courses aim in general to teach students to think, to read, to speak, to write, and, increasingly, to listen, and that these aims characteristically involve work in oral and written expression or language, and in literature. If you could visit a cross section of high schools throughout the country, staying at each high school long enough to become thoroughly acquainted with the various English courses, you would find several approaches used in English instruction. These approaches, none of which will necessarily be the only one used in a particular class or school, are described in the following paragraphs.

The grammar-and-composition approach. In a great many high school English classes you will see students spending their time in such activities as memorizing rules of formal grammar; analyzing and diagraming sentences; correcting sentences or phrases or clauses in workbook or textbook exercises; composing sentences or paragraphs or compositions assigned by the textbook or teacher. This work may constitute the entire program for one or two years, or it may alternate by daily, weekly, or longer periods with the study of literature.

The literary-analysis approach. In the same schools and perhaps in others, you will see classes in American and English literature in which various literary selections are being studied intensively. Here youngsters will be learning the characteristics of literary types; preparing synopses, character sketches, and book reports; memorizing famous quotations and poems; scanning poetry, drilling on vocabulary, and analyzing the style of authors. These various analyses or "dissections," as sometimes critically described, may occupy two years' work or may be alternated with the grammar and composition work throughout three or four years. Literary pieces may be studied by types, by literary or historical periods, by authors, or by some combination of these bases or by no clear-cut plan. Generally, this approach will provide for intensive study of certain classics with outside reading of other literature and of any current materials students are encouraged to read.

The special-activities approach. In the same schools you will find a pattern of special activities in the areas of speech, dramatics, debate, and journalism. These activities may exist as separate classes,

as out-of-school activities, or as special phases of the regular English classes taught on some alternating basis with grammar and composition and literature. Where these activities are "special," youngsters will be making formal speeches, giving formal oral reports, presenting formally organized debates, panel discussions, and plays, and publishing school newspapers. You will probably feel that a great deal of the speech making and report making and the formal debates and discussions is artificial, but that the plays and papers, if produced by those genuinely interested, are of excellent educational value.

The creative-writing approach. Although emphasis on creative writing is a relatively new development in high school English, you will find a considerable number of classes in which teachers are encouraging and helping students to be creative. Some teachers will be doing this as they work with individual youngsters in regular English classes; others will be teaching classes in creative writing or journalism or script writing or similar subjects. Creative writing can be encouraged, of course, in association with the study of literature or composition, or with preparation of school papers, plays, or assembly programs, or without regard to any organized projects or subjects.

The free-reading approach. In somewhat direct contrast with the literary-analysis approach is the plan of free reading you will find encouraged in many high schools. Here, either as part or all of the reading program, youngsters choose materials they wish to read from collections in the classroom, school library, or elsewhere. Varying degrees of guidance in the choice of materials will be given by the teacher and varying types of reading reports will be made by the students. An assignment to read one of a selected list of biographies, for example, and to make a written report of assigned form on the book read could not be considered exactly "free" reading. The most effective free reading is controlled by careful selection of a wide variety of worth-while materials in the school library.

The functional-English approach. "Functional English" is a method of teaching rather than a description of content, but it does define practices characteristic of many skillful English teachers. You might find this method employed in connection with any subject matter of the English courses, or as constituting the language phases of English, or as the approach to remedial instruction. Wherever observed, youngsters whose English instruction is functional would be learning to correct their common errors in speech and writing; to carry on conversations correctly and intelligently; to read with understanding the kind of materials they would expect to read as adults; to write correctly the kinds of letters, speeches, and reports they may need to write; to listen understandingly to their fellows, to school programs, and to radio broadcasts; and to use intelligently such tools of learning as dictionaries, reference books, tables of

content, and indexes. This kind of instruction is called "English for social living" in a book by that title in which English teachers report experiences with their classes. (See "For Further Study" at end of this chapter.)

The unified-English approach. In some schools you will find teachers attempting to eliminate what they consider artificial distinctions between language, composition, literature, reading, and other traditional divisions of the subject. In their classes you may find any or all of the other approaches in English appearing at one time or another, but there will be less of the mechanical division of time. In these schools, too, you may find teachers of other subjects working closely with English teachers to improve communication skills. The English classes will probably be using some type of unit organization for instruction, the units being based on themes such as "democracy," or social problems such as "housing," or historical movements such as "the Westward movement," and building the work of each unit around the related literature or history, with reading, writing, speaking, and listening activities going on throughout the unit.

The school-wide approach. In some, though far too few, schools you will find all classes emphasizing language skills. According to Dora V. Smith of the University of Minnesota, an eminent authority in English instruction, "growth in language power comes primarily through *guided experience in using it* in every activity of the school day together with *special attention during the English period to the needs thus disclosed.* As pupils discuss topics in social studies, give reports in home economics, write up experiments in science, put on plays in assembly, and meet their fellows in clubs or at parties, they are developing habits either detrimental or favorable to their growth in language power. In fact, their normal spontaneous use of language in these situations is undoubtedly a better measure of their real skill in language than their more formal use of it in the English class." [2] In schools where this philosophy is accepted and implemented, the English classes will be concerned with drill on language skills, correction of papers, development of standards of usage, identification of literary materials related to study of problems in other classes, and other supplementary and remedial activities.

ENGLISH AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Three of our ten imperative educational needs (see Chapter XII) seem directly related to English instruction. The authors' opinions as to the ways in which English meets these needs are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Does English instruction help youth "to develop their ca-

[2] Dora V. Smith, "Current Problems in Curriculum Making in English," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 136, **30**:123, (February), 1946.

pacities to appreciate beauty in literature?" Without instruction in literature, the great majority of high school students would never have contact with "beauty in literature." Whether or not the contact they do have through English instruction causes them to develop appreciation is another matter. There is real reason to believe that the "dissection" method of teaching literature makes at least as many students dislike as like literature. It is common knowledge that few high school graduates ever turn again to the classical literature studied in high school, but that many young persons who would probably never read without encouragement do enjoy their guided choices in a free reading program. The fundamental problem seems to be that of finding a sufficient variety of literature having aesthetic values to provide youth of widely differing abilities and interests with materials they can and do appreciate. Obviously the traditional classics alone are inadequate, although they may be appreciated by the pupil who already enjoys good literature and reads widely of his own choice.

Whether English instruction helps students in the wise use of leisure must be answered in terms of particular programs and individuals. Ask yourself, for example: Did your high school English help you in developing good tastes and habits for leisure-time enjoyment of books, movies, plays, and radio? These are leisure-time activities to which English classes can give real direction. When English classes are concerned about leisure, standards are developed for selecting and evaluating books, magazines, movies, plays, and radio programs; students become acquainted with libraries, circulating collections, and sources for reviews of literary, theatrical, and radio productions; and they learn techniques of reading, seeing, and listening for enjoyment. Unfortunately, many English programs fail to achieve such goals because of the narrow practice of teaching a relatively few pieces of literature without use of the many other resources for reading, seeing, and listening that properly fit into the English curriculum.

Does English instruction help youth "to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding?" Needs of thinking, speaking, and reading intelligently, in particular, should be met by the English classes. We question, however, whether the common grammar-and-composition drill and literary-analysis approaches already described help much. In fact, English has perhaps been more widely criticized for pupils' failures in composition and expression than in any other respect. Note, for example, this indictment from the Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum appointed by the American Youth Commission in 1940:

> Composition has in a great many cases, degenerated into a series of formal exercises in the course of which pupils are drilled in the trivialities of verbal expression. . . . The present courses in English composition do not seem to

be satisfactorily productive, they are deficient in producing mastery of writing techniques, and they do not contribute as they should to the enlargement of the contents of pupil experiences.[3]

IMPROVING ENGLISH

What one considers a means of improvement is determined by his standards of value. The standards of value held by the authors may differ greatly from those held by many other teachers. When you begin to teach, probably the best thing you can do is to apply your own standards,

PLATE 19

LEARNING SPEECH SKILLS. Modern recording machines help students recognize their errors. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

based on your experiences as a student, on your observations of schools, and on your reading of this and other material. If you have followed the authors' discussion of the imperative educational needs of high school students you will know what we believe: that in schools where English fails to meet these needs instruction should be revised to insure the development of appreciations for literature, the wise use of reading, radio, theatre, and movies as leisure activities, and the abilities to think and express clearly and effectively, and to read and listen intelligently.

What principles can guide such a revision in the teaching of Eng-

[3] Ben C. Graham., chm., and others, *What the High Schools Ought to Teach* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1940), p. 28.

lish? The authors propose that high school teachers, English departments, and faculties check their program against these questions, noting the practices that are suggested here and that are described more fully in many publications in the English field:

1. Do all teachers feel a responsibility for teaching the skills of communication? Do they refer to the Engish teachers any students who need special help? Do the English teachers give adequate remedial instruction where needed? Do the English teachers help other teachers with problems of teaching reading, writing, and speaking?

Some high schools have taken a step toward the affirmative answer to these questions by establishing English or language "laboratories," to which students bring their writing problems and projects for help by skilled English teachers. In other situations papers for history, biology, or other subjects are prepared in English classes and then reviewed by English teachers for form and by the history teacher, or some other teacher, for content.

2. Is the emphasis on various communication skills commensurate with their use outside school? Is conversational ability given more attention than public speaking? letter writing than theme writing? Some English teachers have eliminated traditional types of themes and instead asked students to do more writing of the kind common in adulthood. Personal and business letters are emphasized. From time to time students get practice as secretaries of school groups. Committees to investigate problems of interest write up reports.

3. Is correct usage stressed instead of formal rules? Are standards of usage understood and applied? Are individual youngsters helped with their particular usage errors? Teachers frequently ask pupils to keep self-checking records of their common errors.

4. Is there an adequate variety of reading materials available and are students given skillful guidance in the choice of materials? Is there sufficient opportunity for each pupil to find literary material that will interest him and stimulate further reading? A major job for the resourceful English teacher is that of keeping an adequate classroom or school collection of such materials and that of advising students in their choice.

5. Is the organization of the English program flexible enough to encourage teachers to develop skills as needed? Are reading, speaking, writing, and listening skills matters of conscious attention in all English activities? A flexible organization is provided in many schools by the organization of English instruction around ideas and problems of interest to students, such as discussion techniques, personality, radio. Skills are attacked indirectly through reading, talking, and writing about these problems.

6. Is there adequate opportunity for individual students to develop special interests and competencies in reading, speaking, writing, publi-

cations, and dramatics? Are these opportunities closely related to the general English program, so that all students will receive adequate guidance in the common communication skills without undue or premature emphasis on a particular skill or interest? Larger schools provide elective or honor courses in the special English fields for students who are qualified and interested, but use basic English courses to develop common skills and to test students for advanced work.

7. Is there agreement of the faculty as to what constitutes a good English program? Is the program evaluated by the faculty, and modifications made accordingly? In some schools every teacher, including the inexperienced, has an opportunity to participate in defining the nature of instruction in the one subject field that enrolls virtually all pupils.

Social Studies

THE PROGRAM

The courses in social studies have perhaps undergone even more revision than those in English. Only a few decades ago the social-studies offering of senior high schools was restricted to European and American history. Now we can find courses by literally dozens of titles included in the social-studies offerings. For example, a recent survey made under the sponsorship of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies showed that the following courses were being taught in the twelfth grade alone of one or more of the thirty-three city school systems included in the survey:

1. American Problems
2. Social and Economic Problems
3. Problems of Democracy
4. American Life and Problems
5. United States History and Government
6. United States History
7. Civics
8. Economics
9. Sociology
10. Latin American History
11. Pan American Relations
12. Western Hemisphere
13. Far East
14. Pan-Pacific History
15. Pacific Rim History
16. International Relations
17. Commercial Law
18. Psychology
19. Advanced Ancient History
20. Advanced World History

21. Modern History
22. English History
23. State History
24. Current History
25. World Geography
26. Consumer Education
27. Post-War Problems[4]

The social-studies field has frequently been the starting point for organizing various kinds of "core," "integrated," "fused," and "correlated" curriculum plans. However, the great majority of high schools still offer specific subjects in this field, and there is a definite trend toward offering the same subjects at about the same grade levels. The Minnesota survey of social-studies offerings in thirty-four states and thirty-three cities showed the following subjects offered most frequently (in the order mentioned) at the grade level indicated:

Grade VII.—American history, geography of United States (required; sometimes combined and sometimes separate)

Grade VIII.—American history (required; sometimes combined with geography, or local history and civics)

Grade IX.—Civics (frequently required), geography

Grade X.—World history (usually elective)

Grade XI.—American history (required)

Grade XII.—Modern problems (various titles—usually required), American history[5]

The observations of Professor Wesley, a leading thinker and student in the social-studies field, regarding recent trends in social-studies instruction also assist our analysis:

1. The social studies are receiving more total attention in the school now than formerly . . . .

2. There is a wider range of subject matter being taught in the social studies . . . .

3. There is a greater diversity among the social studies offerings of different schools than there has ever been before . . . .

4. In all branches of the social studies there is an increasing emphasis upon social elements, with a diminished attention to many traditional aspects. Fewer courses in history are being taught; the other social studies are receiving greater attention. Within the field of history itself less attention is being given to military and political aspects, and a correspondingly increased attention to social, cultural, and economic content. Systematic and theoretical economics is being replaced by a realistic study of economic institutions and possible reforms. Human geography is becoming more popular. Government courses are

[4] See Edgar B. Wesley, "The Social Studies in the Curriculum," Chapter 21 in Harl R. Douglass, ed., *The High School Curriculum* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), p. 443.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 443–444.

now tending to be less formal and to deal with functional rather than structural elements. Sociology is expanding its scope to treat mainly of normal social life with a lessening of attention upon pathological aspects of society.

5. A final trend of fundamental significance to the social studies curriculum is the increasing recognition which is being given to the relationships that exist between the various branches of the social studies . . . .[6]

Encouraging as these statements are, it must be remembered that trends, rather than common practice, are described. For example, study of the most frequent social-studies offerings shows that the final trend cited by Wesley has as yet resulted in only one fused course attaining high frequency in grades nine to twelve, the eleventh- or twelfth-grade course in "problems" (usually called "social problems" or "problems of democracy"). If you again visit a cross section of American high schools, this time to study their social-studies programs, you will find such contrasting practices as the following.

Drill on events, places, dates, persons, and other facts. Probably the most dominant activity in social-studies classes remains that of memorization, recitation, review, and testing of facts, especially dates, persons, places, and events. Sometimes you will see that this drill is clearly related to understanding of significant movements in history or current problems, but at others you can infer only that memorization of specifics is considered to be the most effective method of "covering" the textbook, or "mastering" the course.

A reading program. Another usual observation of social-studies programs is that they are essentially reading programs. This is literally and disgustingly true in the still-too-many classrooms where the teacher's idea of the way to conduct a class in civics, for example, is to have the pupils alternate in reading paragraphs of the text aloud (skipping around, of course, to catch any youngster who may have given away to boredom!). In contrast with such a practice is another situation in which the pupils and teachers select various sources in the classroom, library, and community that give help on social problems and through individual and group study of these materials develop a wealth of relevant information for class discussion and evaluation.

Much of the content of social studies requires extensive reading for understanding, and every social-studies teacher must be a reading teacher. Numerous difficulties here, however, may further characterize the social-studies program: (1) inadequate materials for the range of interests and abilities, (2) possible neglect of sources of information such as films, radio, and persons, because of the emphasis on printed sources, (3) discouragement of youngsters because of difficult textbooks, when these are

[6] Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies*, 2nd ed. (Boston: D. C. Heath Company, 1942), pp. 55–57.

the only sources, and (4) neglect of skills other than reading, such as study of maps and globes, analysis of graphs and charts, and discusion techniques.

The "background" approach. Many classes in social studies discourage the student as well as the observer because of the excessive attention to background. Current problems are frequently never studied because all the time is given to background. European history must be studied to understand the backgrounds of American history, and especially to develop a background for the present—which the class frequently never reaches. Did you ever study a history text that you didn't complete? Yet you would never read 450 pages of a 500-page novel and fail to read the last 50. Unfortunately, the 450 pages of the novel hold the interest of the reader better than a comparable portion of the textbook because, among other reasons, you may read the novel at your own rate but you spend nine months "dissecting" the history book at the rate of 5 pages a day. Even in a problems course, the interest and vitality of the problem is lost because of the enforced necessity for studying first its background. Background has an important place in social studies, but when the program is almost exclusively devoted to the past the student frequently forgets the original purpose of his study.

Study of cultures. Many social-studies programs are characterized by the study of various cultures. In some situations students learn a great deal about the likenesses and differences between various peoples of the world, past and present, and are thus enabled to understand better our intercultural and international problems. In some programs various strands of social science—anthropology, sociology, geography, history, economics—and also the fields of religion, arts, language, and literature are consulted to broaden understanding and appreciation of the various races, for example. However, emphasis on ancient and decadent cultures, as in the study of world history, may be so placed that this approach resembles that of background.

Current-problems approach. In an increasing number of social-studies classes, whether labeled "history" or "problems" or something else, we find as the basis of organization the current problems of society. In these classes pupils and teachers select what they consider important problems of community, state, nation, or world and investigate these problems by such means as are at their disposal. These classes exemplify the trend described by Wesley as "an increasing emphasis upon social elements." A unit basis for organizing instruction is usually employed, and various materials and activities utilized. The significant characteristic is the emphasis on current social problems of recognized significance and on the techniques of investigating these problems, and, frequently, on planning or taking group action regarding them. This type of

program is in marked contrast to another also frequently observed in which history, for example, is taught four days of the week and current events on the fifth.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

The social-studies program can make some contribution to almost every imperative educational need. In social-studies classes students can learn about occupations, about the influence of science on social organization, and about the social aspects of leisure time, and, particularly important, through study of social problems they can develop abilities in thinking, expressing, and reading. The more obvious and direct relationships, however, are to the needs relating to citizenship, family life, consumer problems, and cooperation.

Citizenship has characteristically been the major objective of social-studies instruction. Yet only a little over a decade ago Melbo's study of the information of California high school seniors on contemporary social problems revealed that the amount of social-studies instruction students had received seemed to have no relation to their information about the problems of citizenship.[7] Social-studies instruction that is aimed at the citizenship need has two major problems: (1) development of understandings of the processes and problems of democratic society, and (2) development of abilities for participation in civic action. Although the widespread reorganization in social studies makes generalization difficult, we have every reason to believe that social-studies classes generally have failed to give direct opportunity for participation in such forms of civic action as are possible at the high school level, and frequently have failed to develop clear understandings of the meaning, procedures, and persistent problems of democracy. An instructional organization built around social problems, with adequate resources for study and with such organized procedures as committees, councils, elections, and referendums, whereby students may take action on social problems, could be highly effective in developing civic responsibilities.

Whether social studies help young persons "to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life" again depends on the approach taken in social-studies organization. If the study of family life is restricted to the details of family organization in various cultures or to the historical development of monogamy, pupils, however interested they may be, are not necessarily helped to understand the problems they face in marriage and as fathers and mothers. If, on the other hand, the social-problems course includes study of such problems as divorce, juvenile delinquency, housing, and budgeting, with careful investigation of materials and community

[7] Irving R. Melbo, "The Information of High-School Seniors on Contemporary Problems," *The Social Studies*, **27**:82–86 (February), 1936.

agencies relating to these problems, young persons approach adulthood with more clear-cut ideas of their responsibility in family life.

IMPROVING SOCIAL STUDIES

The foregoing discussion has already revealed a judgment of weaknesses and strengths in social-studies instruction. High school faculties concerned with improving the social-studies program may eliminate or reduce current weaknesses by attention to these principles:

1. Select the content or materials of social studies on the basis of important social problems experienced or anticipated by all young people. The range of these problems is as wide as the experiences the pupils have, and selections must be made. For example, a twelfth-grade class in an urban community in 1948 suggested as important social problems the following: parking meters, traffic laws, housing, form of city government, lack of recreation centers, inadequate school building, reform of the state legislature, liquor consumption, the draft, the presidential election, price control, costs of college education, a current strike, divorce, and the juvenile court. It was necessary for the teacher to suggest which of these might be studied feasibly, and for the group with his guidance to select a starting point.

2. Organize instruction around these problems, eliminating a maximum amount of irrelevant details, background, and uninteresting material. Any one of the problems suggested in the preceding paragraph might provide a course for the advanced college student. High school seniors, however, are not likely to be interested in such exhaustive studies. The teacher must help in identifying the current problems, and in bringing to bear on them information that is clearly and directly pertinent. For example, our entire national political history could be logically related to any presidential election. The high school senior, however, needs an understanding, not of all past presidential elections, but merely of the process, of the chief issues, and of any previous elections that shed light on the current one.

3. Use as resources for study of these problems not only textbooks but library materials, radio programs, films and other visual aids, first-hand study in the community, and local speakers. Here the faculty can cooperate in making available resources that may be in departments other than that of social studies. Increasingly libraries become centers in which magazine and pamphlet materials as well as books are available to classes as they take up studies for which existing textbooks are inadequate. The principal may be helpful in arranging for trips and speakers. The teacher's job is to see that necessary information is secured by the most efficient means.

4. Emphasize and illustrate the procedures of social action through the use of various devices of democracy, such as councils, committees,

elections, and student meetings and discussions, to make and execute plans and decisions regarding these problems of the classroom, the school, and the community with which the students are directly concerned. This step in social action is perhaps the most important but least frequently practiced. The entire school becomes a social-studies laboratory when there is deliberate effort to provide practice in the skills of democratic action.

A recent experiment in "democratic, action-centered education" emphasized in thirty-six experimental social-studies classes in Miami, Florida, and in Pennsylvania and Georgia, the matter of doing something about the social problems studied—that is, arriving at needed solutions and, when possible, actually taking action. Pupils in these classes, compared with those in comparable groups taught by usual procedures, were found to learn as much or more subject matter and to have better attitudes toward their classes and toward social responsibility.[8]

Mathematics

THE PROGRAM

As social studies and a few other subjects have gained prominence in the high school curriculum, mathematics (and foreign languages) has lost ground. There has even been a slight decrease in the amount of high school mathematics taken by students going to college, as evidenced by a study of the high school records of over 7,000 Ohio State University students, which shows that the average number of high school units in 1915–1919 was 2.59 and in 1943, 1.97.[9] However, one or more years of mathematics is still a general requirement.

As long as mathematics courses were justified primarily on the basis of their "disciplinary" values, the subject was classed as general education, that is, of assumed value for everyone. In recent years, as the theories of transfer of training and mental discipline have been discredited, and as only the practical aspects of mathematics could be justified for general-education purposes, most mathematics courses (geometry, trigonometry, advanced algebra, commercial arithmetic) have come to be considered as specialized, that is, of primary value only to students in whose future occupations these courses would have practical value. Hence, arithmetic in grades seven and eight, and general mathematics in grade nine or ten, have increasingly concluded the required mathematics. High schools are now frequently deferring algebra to grade ten.

In many schools, however, the requirement is algebra or general mathematics, and in some it is still algebra. In others a course in geometry

[8] See Charles C. Peters, *Teaching High School History and Social Studies for Citizenship Training* (Coral Gables, Fla.: University of Miami, 1948).

[9] See Raymond D. Bennett, "Trends in the Amount of Mathematics and Science Taken in High School," *School Review*, **52**:406–412 (September), 1944.

emphasizes practical applications and intuitive thinking. The traditional offering of algebra, plane and solid geometry, and trigonometry is supplemented in high schools by general business, and, less frequently, shop mathematics. Larger schools frequently offer a double-track curriculum: general mathematics for the noncollege student; algebra and geometry for the college-preparatory student.

Whatever the requirements and course labels, two distinctly contrasting approaches are employed in mathematics, sometimes alternating but usually varying according to the philosophy of the teacher:

1. Mathematics for mathematics' sake still characterizes the kind of instruction in which formulas, equations, and the like are drilled on regardless of their applicability and utility.

2. Functional mathematics is the approach in the modern high school class that stresses the mathematical operations essential to intelligent citizenship. Here the problems and operations studied are grouped in such units as taxes, insurance, credit, measurement, housing, and public utilities. Emphasis is placed on skills, but skills in relation to their need for solving practical problems.

MATHEMATICS AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Mathematics is an essential tool in solving many life problems experienced or anticipated by students, although it is not a sole, nor even the major, provision for any of the imperative educational needs. Mathematical skill is essential to an understanding of the remunerative aspects of occupations; to computations involved in the study of nutrition and diet; to an understanding of civic problems such as taxation; to budgeting for the individual family, or for civic organization; to carrying on investigations in science; to planning wisely the use of leisure time.

IMPROVING MATHEMATICS

World War II brought an increased emphasis on mathematics as well as considerable criticism of the mathematical training of high school graduates. However, such criticisms as the following, cited by Breslich, merely emphasize the need for functional mathematics:

1. High school graduates are weak in the fundamentals of arithmetic.
2. Poor preparation is given in high school in the basic concepts and processes of algebra and geometry.
3. Algebraic processes are performed mechanically by high school graduates.
4. High school graduates do not think clearly and correctly in mathematical situations.
5. Students in high school are allowed to be inaccurate and lacking in thoroughness.

6. High school graduates cannot use the mathematics they have learned.
7. The problem-solving ability of high school graduates is low.[10]

Review of the many studies made by national committees (see "For Further Study") to improve mathematics instruction indicates general agreement on these principles:

1. Essential mathematical skills should be developed in situations of meaning to students, that is, in terms of actual problems encountered by them in reading, buying, and so forth.

2. Ample opportunity should be provided students for drill in difficult operations.

3. Varied materials, such as business forms, tax receipts, newspaper advertisements and articles, and budgets, should be used in classroom instruction instead of purely hypothetical exercises in a textbook or workbook.

Science

THE PROGRAM

Compared with the other major subjects (English, social studies, and mathematics) in general education, science, particularly of the generalized variety, is a relative newcomer. Early courses were quite specialized: natural philosophy, physiology, chemistry, geology, astronomy, zoology, and botany. General science did not make its appearance until the twentieth century, and the virtual disappearance from the program of studies of botany, zoology, astronomy, and geology is fairly recent. At present the science program usually consists of general science, grades seven to nine; biology, grade ten; and chemistry and physics, grades eleven and twelve, their order frequently varying. In addition, various specialized courses are offered in large high schools; chemistry and physics are occasionally found in combination as "physical science"; and various "problems" and core classes in science have been introduced.

Physics has declined and biology has grown in popularity, as evidenced by the fact that the average number of units taken in physics by students in the Ohio State study referred to earlier, who had graduated from high school during the years from 1915 to 1919, was 0.75, and in 1943, 0.19, whereas the average number in biology of the 1915 to 1919 graduates was 0.15, and of the 1943 graduates, 0.75.[11] However, World War II caused considerable increases in physical-science enrollments, and the introduction of certain new courses, such as aviation, radio, and laboratory technics. General science, biology, and the problems courses are those most generally required and consequently of most potential value in

[10] See E. R. Breslich, "Influence of the War on the Teaching of Secondary Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, **37**:291–300 (November), 1944.

[11] Bennett, *op. cit.*

general education, although various innovations have been designed to eliminate the college-preparatory and vocational emphases in chemistry and physics.

There is a fairly well-established pattern of science instruction: General science and problems courses are generally nonlaboratory, and biology, chemistry, and physics more frequently laboratory courses, there usually being some fixed division of time in laboratory courses for laboratory and class or recitation activity. However, lecture-demonstration methods have frequently replaced laboratory instruction. Whether or not there is work in the laboratory, a few distinct approaches are to be observed in science instruction.

Facts and generalizations. Emphasis on facts and generalization has been so common that in 1940 the American Youth Commission's Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum had these criticisms to make of science instruction: "Courses in the natural sciences are now far too often mere encyclopedic lists of the findings of scientific research. They often fill the memory with facts rather than stimulate pupils to scientific thinking."[12]

Concepts and terms. Closely related to the emphasis on facts and principles is that given scientific terms and concepts. Many courses of study in science have organized instruction around such concepts as "evolution of life" and "gravitation." Such courses can be rich in meaning to youngsters, if the concepts are approached inductively through the students' own environmental problems, or they can be highly formalized without relation to the experiential background of learners, by emphasis on memorization of definitions, laws, and principles.

Formalized laboratory methods. In many science classes, whether in laboratories or other rooms, the method observed is one characterized by so-called experiments, which are in no sense experimental, since the youngster follows exact directions, by notebooks that record in some fixed form the observations of experiments carried on by teachers or pupils, and in general a great deal of busy work that seems far removed from the potentially vital and significant possibilities of science.

Problems approach. An organization based on problems is particularly appropriate in science, since scientific principles, procedures, and concepts have resulted and continue to result from the problems man experiences in relation to his environment. In many schools science is taught in just this way; that is, students are guided to formulate and accept scientific explanations for problems they encounter in connection with diet and nutrition, cosmetics and drugs, sanitation and personal hygiene, automobiles and electrical appliances, radio and photography.

[12] Graham and others, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

SCIENCE AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Science has much to offer the young with respect to their needs for health and physical fitness, for understanding of family life, for consumer knowledges, and for the ability to think rationally. Of unique concern, however, is Need No. 6: "All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man." Obviously, science is *the* subject of the curriculum to serve this purpose. The authors feel that the usual three years of general science, grades seven to nine, properly organized and studied, should provide students with most of the basic understandings needed. How this is done was briefly described with reference to Need No. 6 in Chapter XII. Essential elements of science instruction include: (1) emphasis on the scientific method of studying all problems; (2) practice in the gathering of evidence from all available sources; (3) critical examination of fears, superstitions, prejudices; (4) study of outstanding scientific discoveries and inventions and their significance; (5) study of the biological bases of human behavior; and (6) study of how man controls the physical environment.

IMPROVING SCIENCE

Good science instruction would embody the elements suggested in the preceding paragraph. Other principles against which you might check the program of a school are

1. Is the program sufficiently flexible to permit consideration of new problems as they develop? This is not to suggest that essential sequences be violated. On the other hand, a problems approach involves the frequent necessity of studying various aspects of a problem or even a new, related problem that may not have been anticipated in the original plan.

2. Are the sources of information used objectively and critically? This requirement of the scientific method seems particularly important in the field of science. For example, advertisements may be studied objectively, and indeed courses in consumer science may be built around analysis of consumer goods. In addition to textbook and current-reading materials, science courses are making extended use of audiovisual materials, including microprojection in lieu of individual microscopes.

3. Is there adequate attention to the purposes, methods, and outcomes of all activities? Experiments and demonstrations are useful only so far as there is clear understanding of the hypotheses, data, and observations. The modern emphasis on varied reading activities may also provide excellent opportunity for development of scientific attitudes through analytical reading of various materials relating to the same question.

4. Are scientific (exact) habits of work constantly practised? Again, such habits are inherent in the scientific method. Their use can be de-

veloped by constant checking of purposes, steps, and results on the part of teacher and pupils.

Health and Physical Education

THE PROGRAM

The revelation that over 20 per cent of young Americans were found physically disqualified for military service in World War II brought a greatly increased emphasis on health and physical education in the schools. Health and physical education had already been recognized as essential phases of general education, and frequently they were universally required, with varying provisions of time and kind. Recent efforts at reorganization and improvement of the program of instruction have aimed to eliminate exclusive attention to calisthenics, athletics, or recess play activities, neglect of individual differences in physical development and stamina, and incidental attention to health needs and practices.

Common practices you may observe in high schools now include: (1) separate courses or units or days for health instruction, (2) definite time provision for various physical-education activities, their nature and variety dependent on the facilities in equipment, grounds, and buildings, and (3) varying programs of after-school, noon-hour, and vacation physical activities. The amount of time and nature of these provisions vary greatly, of course, but in general, health and especially physical education now occupy a prominent place in the school curriculum. However, in many schools, particularly smaller ones, there is no organized program of physical education. In these schools there are athletic teams, and pupils who are not members are left to their own devices for physical education. In others, such activities as illustrated are well organized.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Two of the imperative educational needs relate directly to the health and physical-education program: the need for health and physical fitness, and the need for leisure-time activities. Within a particular school it would not be difficult to determine whether the health and physical-education program was serving these needs. You would want to find out whether instruction in health and physical education resulted in: (1) the practice by school graduates of better health habits, such as those relating to diet, sleep, exercise, cleanliness, physical examinations; (2) improvement of physical condition as indicated by progress in some agreed-on schedule of conditioning exercises; and (3) growth of interest in various leisure-time activities of a physical nature.

Favorable answers to these inquiries will likely be found in schools having a well-rounded program of health instruction and physical activities, and negative answers in the still too many schools that are handi-

capped by lack of gymnasiums or pools or playgrounds, or in those in which health education is not considered a function of the school, or in those in which incompetent faculties assume that an adequate physical-education program consists of free play at recess time for those interested and in after-school athletics for those qualified.

IMPROVING HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

A first step toward improvement in health and physical education has been taken in most schools: increased time provision. An-

PLATE 20

BALLET FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS. Modern physical education is more than calisthenics and recess. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

other improvement for which many schools await adequate financial support is that of greatly improved and increased facilities. Other principles that you may hope to find operating in the schools you visit are

1. Each pupil should have his own schedule of physical conditioning, although his activities may be with a group. He will have his own standards of attainment. Students who are ill or handicapped will not be embarrassed by their inability to compete successfully with other students, nor will they be further handicapped by denial of all physical education.

2. Certain activities should be common to all youth: dancing and

swimming. Other activities will be optional, and will include competitive events. Competition, however, will be on a team basis.

3. Leisure-time activities should be of sufficiently varied nature to include something of interest for all youth. They should be so organized that they will encourage the development of skill and also participation by each student in more than one activity. Since many adult activities are in mixed groups, boys and girls are encouraged to enjoy together such activities as tennis, bowling, golf, and dancing.

4. All activities should be under the supervision of competent in-

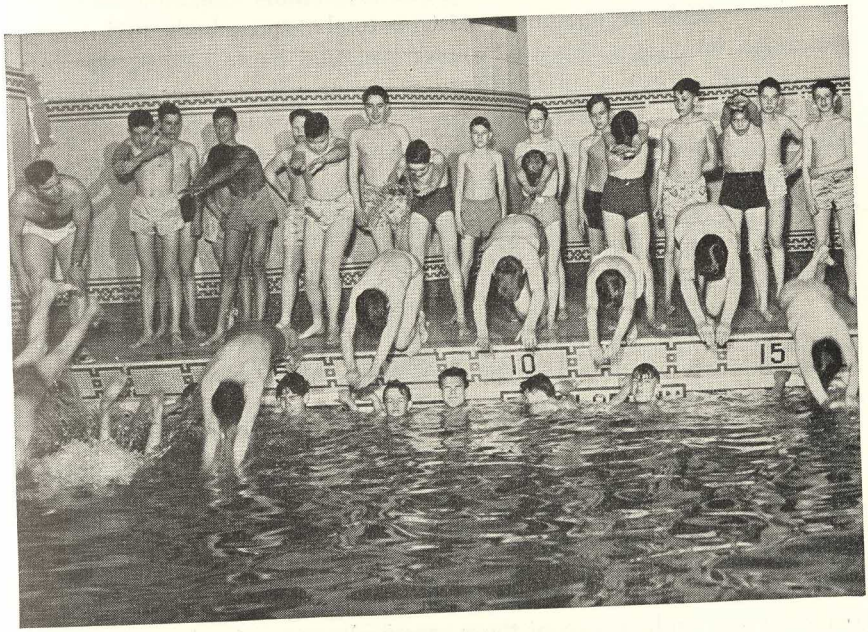

PLATE 21

A COMMON NEED AND A POPULAR ACTIVITY. Swimming instruction is increasingly provided in modern school pools. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

structors, who patiently and effectively help students acquire needed skills. Remedial instruction is given students as required.

5. Regardless of how organized, health instruction is regarded as essential and as a very practical subject. Health is stressed with respect to exercise and athletics, and suitable precautions are taken to insure good health practices in all physical activities. Health instruction is built around the personal problems of boys and girls, and the emphasis is always on practical ways of maintaining and improving health rather than on physiology and rules of hygiene.

Other Subjects Having Possibilities for General Education

Several other subjects commonly included in the secondary program of studies have definite contributions to make in helping young persons satisfy their common needs. Whether or not these subjects actually make such contributions depends on the purpose actually sought—general or preparatory. Brief descriptions of each such subject may indicate its usual and potential possibilities for general education.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Wide disagreement exists as to the general-education values of foreign languages. As was pointed out in Chapter XI, Latin really was general education in the Latin grammar school, since all students that were enrolled expected to attend college, for which Latin was required, and most expected to enter the ministry, for which both Latin and Greek were prerequisite. In the twentieth century the percentage of high school students taking Latin dropped from approximately 50 per cent to approximately 10 per cent, and of those taking modern languages from more than 30 per cent to less than 20 per cent.[13] Today, when perhaps only 15 per cent of a high school's graduates will attend college, when foreign languages are decreasingly required for college admission, and when the early claims for the disciplinary value of languages are unacceptable, it is difficult to justify languages for all youth.

True, languages can help students understand various cultures. A great deal of instruction in language, however, is concerned with reading and speaking skills, and in face of so many urgent needs, use of the time and effort necessary to master these skills is questionable. Although most all high schools offer one or more languages, few require a language for any students except those specifically preparing for college. For these students and others who elect language because of some special interest or vocational aim, languages may be considered specialized education. For other students, a study of the cultures of the world as revealed through English translations of their history and literature would be of greater advantage and far less time consuming than are courses in foreign languages. A short time spent in studying an English dictionary might accomplish more than a whole year of Latin, so far as knowledge of words is concerned. The time saved might be used for study of the current social problems completely overlooked by the classical curriculum.

Some efforts have been made to develop a "general language"

[13] Carl G. F. Franzen, "Foreign Languages in the Curriculum," Chapter 23 in Harl R. Douglass, ed., *The High School Curriculum* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947), p. 481.

course that will present some of the basic principles of language structure and philology. In general, this course has not been popular because of difficulties in organization, personnel, and textbooks.

Most students of modern secondary education would agree with these principles concerning the inclusion of languages in the curriculum:

1. Consideration in history or literature courses of the major unique characteristics of the languages of various nationalities.
2. Inclusion of only languages that are justified by a carefully guided enrollment of students having special and adequate needs for and interests in the languages.
3. Emphasis in any language on the general culture and literature of the people whose language is studied.

ART

Art has a definite contribution to make to general education if we agree that one of youth's needs to be served by general education is that of "opportunities to develop the capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature." Art is rather generally required in one junior high year and is available on an elective basis thereafter in larger schools. The general principles on which there is agreement as to art instruction are

1. Appreciation of beauty in art should be developed so far as possible for all students through (a) instruction in the elementary and perhaps junior high school grades, and (b) contact with art in various school and community activities at all grade levels.
2. Development of competence in art production is a function of specialized education for students who have interests and special abilities.

MUSIC

The status, justification, and principles of music instruction are similar to those of art. However, largely because of the radio and phonograph, enjoyment of music is much more widespread than that of art. Consequently, there is more opportunity to develop appreciations of music, and at the same time more need to develop discriminating tastes. Also, participation in music activities in school through assembly singing, orchestra, band, chorus, and choir, is much more universal than in art. Perhaps this indicates a lack of provision for participation in art, perhaps the need for a higher level of skill on the part of students. Regardless, you will observe a considerable amount of music activity in most high schools, and later as a high school teacher you will wish to be able to encourage and participate in these activities.

HOME ECONOMICS

Few, if any, subjects have a more direct contribution to make to the common needs of young persons than home economics. Unfortunately, because the subject is traditionally concerned with the development of skills in cooking and sewing, it almost universally serves the common needs of girls only. Yet here is subject matter to help both girls and boys develop understandings of family life and of consumer

PLATE 22

GIRLS CAN LEARN INDUSTRIAL ARTS. Girls have shop experience in the Denver Schools. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

problems. Various solutions have been attempted: (1) organization of separate or mixed home-economics classes of boys and girls for consideration of homemaking and consumer problems; (2) organization of special courses on family living, consumer education, and related titles that are not labeled "home economics," and (3) inclusion of the homemaking and consumer areas in core-curriculum plans.

So long as boys do not take home-economics courses and so long as the special courses mentioned are on an elective basis, the organization of core-curriculum plans seems the best approach to making available to all students the general-education content of home economics. When this plan is followed, the residual work in home economics consists

primarily of skills and is specialized education to prepare girls for their responsibilities as housewives or for employment in commercial or domestic service.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

There is great similarity in patterns of home-economics and industrial-arts instruction. Both have been restricted to one sex, both have become highly specialized subjects (and federally supported as

PLATE 23

AND BOYS CAN LEARN TO COOK, TOO. Denver home arts class, typical of many cooking classes for boys. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

vocational education) in the senior high school, and both have highly important contributions to make to general education. There is one important difference: home economics is much more commonly offered. In rural areas, agriculture, which we can consider only as vocational education despite certain relationships to the general-education purposes, is offered boys instead of industrial arts, whereas in the majority of all schools, home economics is offered to girls.

Where industrial arts is available, it is frequently required of junior high school boys, and emphasis is placed on vocational orientation, elementary skills in the several industrial arts, and in simple construction and repair jobs for home, school, and shop. Efforts have been made,

with varying success, to bring girls into the shop classes. One interesting innovation has been the exchange-unit plan, whereby girls and boys exchange places for a few weeks in the home-economics and industrial-arts classes. Another plan for making the general-education values of industrial-arts courses available to girls is to include in the home-economics courses projects on home repairs and decoration. As illustrated in Plates 22 and 23, the sex restrictions in both home economics and industrial arts can be removed.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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Bond, Guy L., and Eva Bond, *Developmental Reading in High School*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941.
Contains suggestions for the high school reading program. Section II, the major part of the book, is concerned with techniques of interest to all teachers in fields involving reading.

Breslich, E. R., "Influence of the War on the Teaching of Secondary Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, 37:291–300 (November), 1944.
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Sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, this short volume presents a point of view regarding physical education and a method of curriculum revision.

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sive Education Association, examines the study and teaching of mathematics in relation to the total general-education program.

Committee on the Function of Social Studies in General Education, *The Social Studies in General Education*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940.
Chapters IV to VII describe ways in which the social-studies program may aid adolescents to meet certain needs: immediate personal-social relationships, social-civic relationships, economic relationships, and personal living.

Corey, Stephen M., and others, *General Education in American High Schools*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1942.
Description prepared by a committee for the North Central Association, of general-education practices in American high schools.

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A compilation of statements by writers in the various subject fields as to the place of their respective fields in the secondary curriculum. Chapters are included on social studies, English, journalism, speech, modern foreign languages, natural science, mathematics, home economics, health and physical education, and art.

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Reviews the postwar student body, pertinent postwar conditions and trends, and shifts in educational philosophy, drawing implications for the secondary curriculum as a whole and specifically for the subjects indicated.

———, (ed.), *The High School Curriculum*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947.
Certain chapters of this compilation of articles by leaders in secondary education deal with the general-education subjects: Chapter 20, English and speech; Chapter 21, social studies; Chapter 22, science; Chapter 23, foreign languages; Chapter 24, mathematics; Chapter 25, personal and family living; Chapter 27, music; Chapter 29, art; Chapter 30, health education; and Chapter 31, physical education.

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See Chapters 5 to 7 for an anlysis of the curriculum of junior high schools: trends, organization, and content of the fields indicated.

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National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Committee on Post-War Plans, "First Report"; "Second Report"; and "Guidance Report of the Commission on Post-War Plans," *The Mathematics Teacher*, 37:226–232 (May), 1944; 38:195–221 (May), 1945, and 40:315–339 (November), 1947.
A committee of mathematics teachers presents a comprehensive program for mathematics in the secondary school.

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Comprehensive discussion of the reading problems of high school students, and methods for improving reading abilities.

———, *Science Education in American Schools*. Part I, Forty-sixth Yearbook; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947.
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Smith, Dora V., "Basic Considerations in Curriculum-Making in the Language Arts," *English Journal*, 37:115–126 (March), 1948.
A stimulating article describing needs of curriculum revision in language arts, reporting the study of the Commission on the English Curriculum, and suggesting ways and means of improving the language-arts program.

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Tyler, Ralph W. (chm.), and others, *American Education in the Postwar*

Period; Curriculum Reconstruction. Part I, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.
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Comprehensive treatment of art education in secondary schools in relation to basic educational purposes.

XIV THE SUBJECTS IN SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

As has been pointed out repeatedly, there is no clear, fixed dividing line between general and specialized education. In a sense, all education is specialized because all individuals are unique and therefore must learn particular skills at times and rates appropriate to their unique needs and capacities. However, certain skills, such as those of communication, are needed by all young persons, and certain others by only those who will use these skills in their adult life. As a rule, individuals can acquire these first, or general, skills in a program of education designed to meet the needs of all pupils, whereas the latter skills must be developed in situations involving special facilities and in programs for persons with specialized interests and capacities. The latter group of skills is in the field the authors define as specialized education.

We should note here also that specialized education is a broader term than vocational education, since a student may acquire skills for use in leisure time or to extend an interest, as in languages or mathematics, as well as in earning a living. However, specialized education is most commonly thought of as vocational education, that is, as being related to the need for salable skills, and it will be given most attention in that relationship here.

Problems and Principles in Specialized Education

One of the most difficult problems in the entire difficult area of specialized education is that of determining the field of specialization for every person. This, of course, is the central problem of occupational guidance. Methods of predicting occupational success are far from infallible, young persons may be expected to change their opinions regarding desired vocations, and information regarding possible occupations is frequently conflicting and inadequate in other ways.

Traditionally, the secondary school has provided specialized education for only the professions, since the characteristic emphasis in the high school curriculum has been on preparation for colleges and on the kind of preparation, in foreign languages and mathematics, that was traditionally considered essential in law, medicine, and the ministry. Although this emphasis has declined, it is still true that many more students take college-preparatory courses than actually go to college,

and also that only a limited number of those who go to college eventually enter one of the professions.

In general, however, we may think of specialized education as serving two groups of students: (1) those who will continue their schooling after high school, and (2) the much larger group who will not continue after, if indeed they complete, high school.

SPECIALIZATION FOR THE COLLEGE-GOING STUDENTS

For convenience, we may consider college-going students those who will continue formal schooling of any type after high school. Although specialized education will be provided later, difficult problems are presented in the secondary school. First, how can we know in grade seven or nine or ten, wherever high school begins, who will go to college? The percentage of those who think they may go to college is almost invariably much higher than that of those who actually arrive there.

Even if the college-going student could be correctly identified, an almost equally difficult problem is that of determining the fields of specialization they will take up in college. Many, of course, will follow liberal-arts courses, but some will specialize in a vocation for which the high school can offer limited preparatory work. In view of the findings of the Eight-Year Study (see Chapter XII), which indicated that no particular high school subjects or patterns of subjects possessed more value than others for general college preparation, there seems little reason to attempt to offer precollege specialized education for college-going students other than those whose chosen colleges or fields of college specialization make particular demands. Such demands, of course, are very numerous, and so far as the program of studies permits, must be met. There are the general entrance requirements of individual colleges, as well as the common requirements in mathematics for engineering, in science for premedicine, and in other subjects for various fields.

Fine's recent and important study determined that "seventy-five per cent of all the colleges in this country give preference to students who take the academic, classical or college preparatory course," but he suggested that these requirements should be re-examined and that "the colleges should develop a flexible program and accept high school graduates regardless of the pattern of the courses taken."[1] Acceptance of the following specific recommendations he makes would tend to eliminate considerable emphasis on the college-preparatory subjects that ordinarily constitute the specialized education of the college-going youth:

[1] Benjamin Fine, *Admission to American Colleges* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946), pp. 98–99.

1. Entrance requirements should be modified to permit high school graduates who have not taken the regular academic course to enter.

2. Greater flexibility should be developed concerning the fifteen Carnegie units of admission now required throughout the land. Either these units should be discontinued and some more effective basis of admitting students adopted, or else they should be altered so as to include such courses as vocational agriculture, shopwork, mechanical drawing, typewriting, and similar non-academic courses.

3. A premium should not be put on students who have been able to master foreign languages, mathematics, or science in the high school. The general ability rather than type of program pursued by the candidate should be the ultimate criterion of his potential college ability.

4. Students who do not meet the requirements so far as high school subjects are concerned should, if they otherwise show promise, be admitted to college on an equal basis with the other students.[2]

More fundamental improvements can be made in the high school curriculum when such recommendations as these, which coincide with the implications of the Eight-Year Study, are followed. The college-going group is so relatively small, and there is so little reason for many of the traditional college-preparatory requirements in high school that the real issue becomes one of how to provide adequate terminal courses for the large noncollege group, preparatory courses for the college-going group, and at the same time an adequate general education for both groups. That is, the point of view increasingly being accepted in secondary education is that there must be opportunities for specialization for the noncollege student as well as for the college student traditionally given precedence in the program of studies.

There is danger, of course, that neither the terminal nor the general courses will provide adequate challenge to the exceptionally gifted youth. Various types of special-interest courses and activities that may serve this purpose are discussed in a later section of this chapter. (See page 367.)

SPECIALIZATION FOR NONCOLLEGE STUDENTS

The problem of helping students to prepare for occupations is complicated by many limitations and confusions. In the first place, the majority of high schools are too small, too poor, too limited in facilities to provide adequate specialization. As was shown in Chapter VIII (see Table 9) over a third of the high schools in the United States enroll fewer than 100 pupils, and almost two thirds less than 200.

Thus large numbers of students attend schools that cannot afford expensive facilities for vocational education. Only our larger cities provide vocational or technical high schools. In these cities specific vocational training in trades is given in the usually well-equipped schools.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 100.

Federally aided programs in agriculture, home economics, industrial arts, and distributive occupations have done much to expand vocational offerings, but these programs are still not available in many small schools that cannot meet the requirements for this aid. However, vocational courses without federal support are offered in many of these smaller schools. Federal aid to vocational education was initiated by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and has been extended by various acts of Congress, including the George-Deen Act of 1936, which added distributive occupations to the list of vocations receiving federal aid. These acts apportion funds to the states on matching bases; thus their benefits may be denied to poorer districts.

Furthermore, much of the vocational education that is offered is so narrow and so highly specialized that it is of value to relatively small groups of high school students. The programs of vocational or technical high schools generally give adequate training for the trades but frequently a limited offering in general education. The Prosser Resolution, adopted at a conference in 1945 sponsored by the United States Office of Education, pointed out that the vocational program provided specialization for about 20 per cent of high school students, as did the college-preparatory program for another 20 per cent, and that the remaining 60 per cent received no adequate "life-adjustment" training. This Resolution has subsequently become a basis for extended study and planning, under the leadership of a national Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth, for these neglected students who at present either do not develop any salable skills or acquire such as they have on the job or in part-time training programs.

Life-adjustment education for the 60 per cent of students in high school who, according to the Resolution, receive specialized preparation for neither college nor vocations, is actually general education, but a general education that is functional for this particular large group. In a report dealing with the Resolution and the Commission and entitled "Every Youth in High School—Life Adjustment Education for Each," implications for the students concerned are drawn for these phases of the program of secondary education: guidance and pupil-personnel services, citizenship, home and family life, leisure, health, consumer education, tools of learning, and work experience and occupational adjustment.[3] Study of these implications suggest that specialized education for a large group of high school youth is merely an adaptation of the general-education program.

Finally, there is the difficulty of providing both general and specialized education in an already crowded program. The high school has traditionally been an academic institution, and academic courses fill the curriculum. Vocational courses have been opposed by many groups,

[3] *Every Youth in High School—Life Adjustment Education* (Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, no date). Mimeographed.

and in many communities their offering has been confined to the vocational or trade schools in which general education has been sacrificed for technical training. Even in the comprehensive high schools students electing vocational programs may have little time or opportunity for general courses. Similarly, students enrolled in the college-preparatory program have no opportunity to take nonacademic courses. The problem is further complicated by the large percentage (approximately 50 per cent) of students who leave school prior to graduation and for whom both general and specialized education must be provided in even less than the usual period of secondary education.

IMPROVING SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

A number of principles are proposed for dealing with these problems of specialized education:

1. Specific training for particular occupations should be deferred as long as possible in order to provide more time for general education.

2. The general-education program should include adequate prevocational studies and experience to assist in the wise selection of areas of specialization.

3. In order that specific training may be deferred and also to make possible better training programs for all students who can attend, community institutes or junior colleges or other forms of extended secondary education programs should be provided.

4. Work experience in the community should be widely utilized to provide practical experience in areas of specialization and to give students the opportunity to explore various work possibilities.

Since such principles as these just noted were basic to the proposals for Farmville and American City in *Education for All American Youth* and *Planning for American Youth*, we may see how they were worked out in these plans. How vocational preparation may be deferred and gradually expanded is shown by the schedule of periods in American City as reproduced in Chapter XII from *Planning for American Youth*. Note that vocational preparation begins with one period a day (of six) at grade ten, occupies two periods a day in grades eleven and twelve, and three periods a day in grades thirteen and fourteen. Specific job training is concentrated in the latter years. Work experience was described as an integral part of the program of the secondary schools at both Farmville and American City. Descriptions of the work-experience plans in these hypothetical situations, as well as in several actual situations, are given in Chapter XVI.

The ideal solution to the problems of specialized education seems to be that of extending the secondary school to include grades thirteen and fourteen. The possibilities of specialized education in the community institute of American City are explained in the following answers

from *Education for All American Youth* to the question, "Why do students attend the community institute?"

1. Some students want to prepare for various technical and semi-professional occupations which require all the training that high schools can give and one or two years in addition. In this group, for example, are those who wish to become accountants, draftsmen, laboratory technicians, dietitians, assistants in doctors' and dentists' offices, and managers of various businesses.

2. Some want advanced training beyond that which can be offered in the years of high school in the occupations for which high schools provide the basic preparation. Machine shop, metal trades, retail selling, office management, automobile and airplane mechanics, and the various building trades are examples. In one or two years at the community institute, a student is able to extend his mastery of basic operations, enlarge his knowledge of related science and mathematics, secure more practical work experience, and advance in his understanding of economic processes and industrial and labor relations.

3. Some want to prepare for admission to professional schools and the last two years of technical and liberal arts colleges. For various reasons, they prefer to take the first two years of college or university work while living at home. For them, the community institute provides courses comparable to those of the first two years of the four-year colleges.

4. Some want to round out their general education before entering employment or becoming homemakers. To them, the community institute offers a wide range of elective courses in science, social studies, literature, languages, psychology, home economics, music, dramatics, art, and handicrafts.

5. There is yet a fifth group, composed of adults and older youth, mostly employed, who no longer attend school full time, but who wish to continue their education during their free hours. Their interests are wide and varied. Some spring from their daily work, some from their home life, some from their civic activities, some from their uses of leisure time, and some from the simple desire to "keep on growing." Some enrol in the regular institute courses. Most attend evening classes which are organized especially for them. These classes may meet anywhere in the city, but they are all a part of the community institute program, for this is the school system's agency of adult education.[4]

Few American cities, however, have any type of extended secondary schools. In 1947–1948 there were only about 320 public junior colleges of all types in the United States. For his study[5] of the four-year junior college, Professor Koos found only ten school systems operating under the 6–4–4 plan favored by himself, as well as the Educational Policies Commission. However, postwar crowding of colleges and universities, together with increased financial aid for and public interest in education, is helping to bring about needed expansion.

Until a community can provide for the additional facilities of a

[4] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 246–247.

[5] See Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946).

junior college or community institute, the best possibilities for specialized education seem to be (1) work-experience programs for as many students as possible, (2) limited specialized education in the most common vocational activities of the community, in the last two or three years of the secondary school. Specialized education, so far as vocational objectives sought in the subject curriculum are concerned, is limited in the usual high school to one or more of the following areas: industrial arts, home economics, agriculture, and business education. In addition, certain other subjects may be useful in developing special skills for vocational purposes. The various subjects are considered in succeeding sections of the chapter.

Home Economics

PRESENT PROGRAM

Courses in home economics also bear various other titles, such as home arts, household arts, and homemaking, and are offered in about two thirds of all secondary schools. In view of the fact that homemaking is the most common vocation (three times as many persons fourteen years of age and older were engaged in housework in 1940 as in any other vocation), the offering seems not yet common enough. Although home economics has received considerable impetus from federal aid, only about half the schools offering homemaking courses are able to meet federal standards and hence receive federal reimbursement. Federal aid for homemaking was authorized by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and subsequent acts of Congress appropriating funds for vocational education. However, as pointed out in Chapter XIII, a great deal of the instruction in this field really serves general-education purposes. It should also be recognized that the quality of homemaking courses is not necessarily determined by the presence of federal aid.

Offerings vary, in accordance with the size and the facilities of the school, from one unit a year of work to complete programs of courses, grades seven to twelve or seven to fourteen. The courses are more often required in the junior high grades (usually seven and eight) and elective in the senior high. Even smaller schools usually offer at least two units, the emphasis in one sometimes being on clothing and in the other on foods. In the basic courses other emphases that may become courses themselves in larger schools include: child care; selection, furnishing, and care of the house; nutrition; family relations; health and nursing; and consumer buying. In larger schools where enrollments and pupil needs seem to justify this amount of specialization, courses may be organized in such occupations as cafeteria management, domestic service, and tailoring.

In the junior high schools, and less frequently in the high schools,

home-economics instruction is generally organized around units or problems of varying length instead of in entire courses devoted to the study of foods and clothing. The federally supported home-economics programs have for years been concerned with a type of instruction that would function in the home; they have included home projects and utilized home problems in the class program. Shifting emphasis in home economics is indicated by the successive titles used in this field: "domestic science," "home economics," "homemaking," and "family life." However, as a subject in the program of studies, "home economics" is probably still the most common name.

HOME ECONOMICS AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Home economics, as already pointed out, has direct contributions to make to certain common needs of all young persons, especially to those regarding family living and consumer problems. The fact that only girls ordinarily take these courses merely means that the enrollments and not the needs are specialized. However, the point can certainly be defended that girls, as potential housewives and mothers, have specialized need for instruction in the care of children, the purchase of food and women's and children's clothing, the construction of clothing, and the preparation of food. The 1940 census reported that 57 per cent of the total female population fourteen years and over were engaged in housework at their own homes.

Because of its practical nature and its direct relation to the adult activities of women, this field is regarded by many educators as having contributed more than perhaps any other to the needs of high school girls. Here girls learn better techniques for jobs at home, gather suggestions for their mothers, and acquire information they may need in marriage and motherhood. Potentially, homemaking instruction can affect home and family living directly, because projects may involve home beautification or improved diets or better budgets.

Preparation for specific occupations other than that of the housewife and mother may also be given in home-economics courses. Sewing is of value to the future seamstress as well as to the future mother, and cooking to the girl who becomes a restaurant cook as well as to the housewife. Practice in serving meals is of value to the girl who becomes a waitress just as is practice in interior decoration or dietetics or cosmetology or nursing to those who go on to the advanced training necessary for careers in these fields. Lack of school facilities in the more specialized fields can be remedied by cooperative arrangements with local establishments. Actually, every home, every women's shop, every food establishment, every beauty parlor, every school provides abundant opportunity for girls to secure information and skills that they may use in both their present and future activities.

IMPROVING HOME-ECONOMICS INSTRUCTION

The need to improve general-education programs by providing home economics materials for all young persons has already been discussed. Equally important is the need to improve specialized education by providing students interested in related occupations with some of the experiences described. It is difficult to defend a system of requirements that causes girls who may or may not go to college to take certain subjects supposedly needed for college and pass up courses needed by mothers, housewives, and even employers. It is perhaps even more tragic that small rural schools lacking enrollments or facilities to satisfy federal-aid requirements may offer the most inadequate courses in home economics, if they offer any at all. We should also note that men as well as women go into vocational fields related to home economics, and that therefore enrollments in home economics, whether for vocational or general-education purposes, should not be confined to girls. Increasingly, schools in metropolitan areas are organizing home-economics classes for boys.

In the schools offering home-economics instruction, efforts to improve specialized opportunities are now generally of these types:

1. Utilizing problems from home, the school lunchroom or cafeteria, girls' clothing, and community stores and other establishments as a basis for organizing instruction. For example, the girl working as a part-time clerk in a ready-to-wear store may wish to study about new materials and terms, the relation of the quality and price of fabrics, criteria for selection of trimmings and accessories, and appropriate colors and designs for different persons. The renovation of an unattractive room at school or home may give pupils an opportunity to discover interests in interior decoration. Operating a school beauty parlor is an opportunity for the girl who wants to become a cosmetologist, or the girl who already is assisting in a commercial parlor may secure supplementary training at school.

2. Placing emphasis in the core curriculum or other general-education courses on such common student problems as consumer education, child development, family living, nutrition, health, and home decoration, and thereby providing more time for specialized home-economics courses. As core programs are organized, problems of family living are inevitably among the first to be proposed for units in the program. Whether they can be included, of course, depends on the ability of core teachers to help students with problems such as those just listed. One solution is for home-economics teachers to serve as core teachers. In some situations the home-economics teacher is available for special meetings for core groups or for help to core teachers.

3. Extending opportunities for firsthand experience in various specialized skills that will, so far as is possible, be in accordance with the apparent occupational interests of the girls. For example, work experiences can be utilized in such jobs as caring for children, serving at parties and in the cafeteria, doing simple housework, and taking various part-time jobs in stores, restaurants, and doctors' offices. To be of value, these experiences must be related to classroom instruction. That is, high school baby-sitters should receive help in home-economics classes about the child-development problems they encounter, and waitresses about problems of serving and etiquette. Furthermore, the home-economics teacher or the work-experience coordinator, or both, must be in position to evaluate performance, to check interest against the type of experience, and to suggest a different type of experience where indicated.

Agriculture

PRESENT PROGRAM

The status of agriculture in secondary schools has closely paralleled that of home economics with the one important exception that agriculture is rarely offered in urban schools. Agriculture is also reimbursable by provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act and successive laws, but here also many schools do not qualify for federal aid. The number of units offered vary, two-, three-, and four-year courses being common. The course content varies from a highly academic textbook course in agricultural products to several specific courses in farm crops, animal husbandry, horticulture, farm engineering, and farm management.

The major objectives and corresponding areas of instruction of vocational agricultural education are generally recognized as follows: (1) production of farm commodities; (2) marketing of farm products; (3) conservation of soil and other natural resources; (4) management of farm business; and (5) maintenance of a favorable farm environment. Instead of separate courses in these fields, recent curriculum changes have adopted a cross-section plan that cuts across subject-matter divisions to study entire farming problems and operations such as corn, feeding, and sheep, in terms of the needs of the students and the community.

Three fairly characteristic features of the agriculture program should be noted:

1. Emphasis is usually placed on supervised farm practice. Each student in a vocational agriculture class has one or more projects; that is, he is responsible for the development, marketing, and accounting of his own land, orchard, or livestock. These projects have become com-

prehensive, frequently including in addition to productive enterprises, beautifying a home, reclaiming a field, or building a farm shop.

2. Instruction in agriculture is closely related to, and indeed is given with the aid of, certain large national agriculture organizations. The Future Farmers of America is open to membership by young people who are or have been enrolled in vocational agriculture classes, and the 4–H clubs operate somewhat independently of schools. Both organizations are designed to improve agricultural conditions and relations among rural boys and girls.

3. Vocational agriculture is definitely related to community problems, in that instruction and projects center around local crops and conditions and also in that the instructors work closely with adult farmers as well as with high school students.

AGRICULTURE AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

Courses in agriculture have contributions to make to the general education of all students in supplying their needs for an understanding of science, for information regarding costs and marketing, and for development of leisure-time interests in gardening. However, limited facilities in urban centers, competition of other perhaps more valuable courses, and tradition make it unlikely that agriculture will become a general-education subject. The vocational aim for boys dominates and obviously justifies offering the courses in rural schools. Study and experience under skilled instructors offer rural boys an opportunity not only to improve in some skills that most will have used long before high school but to secure many varied skills and much broader ideas of the possibilities in agriculture.

The importance of a community-centered program in agriculture is indicated by estimates that as many as 80 per cent of the young persons who enter farming after high school remain in the area of the high school they attend.[6] That vocational agriculture definitely serves vocational purposes is demonstrated by studies showing that from 60 to 65 per cent of those who take vocational courses later engage in farming.[7] In view of these facts probably the greatest concern with respect to agricultural instruction is its relative infrequence. For example, the analysis of subject enrollments presented in Chapter XI showed that only 8 per cent of all young persons enrolled in small Nebraska high schools were enrolled in agriculture. The most recent statistics for the entire United States shows only 3.6 per cent of all secondary school

[6] Ralph H. Woods, "Agricultural Education," Chapter XII in Part I, *Vocational Education* (Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943), p. 203.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 211.

students enrolled in agriculture, as compared, for example, with 16 per cent in Latin.[8] In only one state (North Dakota) were more than 10 per cent of all students enrolled in agriculture. In 1941 there were 8,779 all-day departments (that is, regular high school programs having federal aid) of vocational agriculture,[9] although at this time there were at least twice as many high schools drawing enrollments from rural areas. Woods estimated in 1944 that the enrollment in vocational agriculture should be approximately two and one-half times as large as it then was to provide training for the 165,000 new farmers needed each year in the United States.[10]

IMPROVING AGRICULTURE INSTRUCTION

Early instruction in agriculture perhaps had too much narrow vocational emphasis, that is, was too much concerned with specific skills for increasing farm earnings. In recent years more attention has been given to the economic problems of the farmer: conservation, marketing, farm organization, consumer problems on the farm, and the management of farm labor. More emphasis has also been given the means of making farm life more attractive: electrification, sanitation and health, the farm home. Further improvements in instruction should include:

1. Expansion of offerings to include agriculture courses in all rural high schools and in an increasing number of urban centers in farm regions. This step, of course, involves certain financial problems, but perhaps the major problem is that of securing the interest of boys and their parents in this field rather than in an academic one.

2. Inclusion either in required agriculture courses or in general-education plans, such as the core curriculum, of an increased amount of material from the fields of agricultural economics and sociology. The economic and social problems of the farmer in relation to national and international developments provide materials for study that are both important and interesting for farmers.

3. Emphasis on improvement of physical facilities on the farm, in the rural community, and at the school as an objective of instruction in agriculture. Thus supervised farm practice may include beautification and other service projects. The agriculture classes may take leadership in various school and community jobs designed to provide better facilities.

[8] Carl A. Jessen, *Offerings and Registrations in High School Subjects, 1933–34* (U. S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 6 1938; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 30.

[9] Woods, *op. cit.*, p. 201.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 212.

Industrial Arts

PRESENT PROGRAM

Two sharply opposing points of view may be found with respect to the industrial-arts field. On the one hand, it is believed that the function of the secondary school is to give all students some acquaintance with the industrial occupations and a few elementary skills and knowledges in industrial arts. On the other hand, it is held that the

PLATE 24

PRINTING CLASSES FOR GIRLS. Girls may explore various occupational interests in the comprehensive high school. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

secondary school should give such specific training that its graduates will be able to step into industrial jobs without further training.

These points of view and modifications thereof are reflected in the kinds of programs in industrial arts you will find in secondary schools. The largest group of schools will offer no courses in industrial arts, although courses in home economics, if offered, may include home repairs, and in agriculture, also if offered, farm repairs. Another group of schools offer exploratory industrial-arts courses for one or two years and no further courses—these exploratory courses being most often in a general-shop situation. Still another group of schools, usually our largest

comprehensive high schools, offer the exploratory courses in junior high school and also specialized vocational courses in specific trades in the later years. The shops usually provided in these schools include machines, wood, metals, electricity, printing, automotive, drafting and building. A fourth group of schools found in our largest cities—trade or vocational schools—are definitely vocational in aim and offer, sometimes in separate schools, training in electricity, printing, carpentry, plumbing, and so forth.

Schools of the latter two types share in federal funds for vocational education. In these schools a prescribed sequence of courses is taken for each trade, with related academic subjects sometimes also prescribed. In addition to the regular day-school vocational programs, vocational courses include apprenticeship training, on-the-job training in connection with industry, and evening school or other continuation courses. In larger cities the vocational program may be so complex that it constitutes almost a separate school system. The vocational schools also offer some general-education subjects, usually organized on a more functional basis than in the academic curriculum.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS AND THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

The exploratory, general-shop courses undoubtedly have a real contribution to make to the general education of all young persons and also may help individual students choose areas of specialized education. If, however, the secondary school is to assume responsibility for the development of salable skills, there must be opportunity through specialized courses for developing skills needed in industry. Industrial employers increasingly supply their own training for specific jobs but still expect the employee to have developed skill in fundamental tools and processes and good work habits.

Whether or not the industrial-arts program contributes to the development of salable skills has to be answered in terms of a particular community and secondary school. When you visit a particular school you might ask:

1. Is the industrial-arts program based on accurate information regarding job possibilities in the community? That is, is the specialized training that is given appropriate to the occupations young persons will enter? The appropriateness of the training is determined usually by occupational surveys, sometimes made or assisted by high school students and their teachers. Conduct of these surveys is relatively simple in the small community, and of course extremely difficult in the large city. In fact, in the small community students may make such surveys almost unaided; in the large they may consult, and sometimes assist, governmental or commercial agencies.

2. Are the skills that are taught carefully planned with local in-

dustry, so that a maximum number of them are essential in all or most trades and industries, and so that specific training within industry may build on the schools' programs? Job analyses commonly prepared by representatives of industry and of schools are desirable. Such analyses provide an excellent opportunity for joint planning of the industrial-education program by schools and employers.

3. Is training for a particular trade consistent with the local requirements of that trade? Planning with representatives of a single trade is relatively simple; it is the ordinary procedure followed in vocational programs.

4. Does the program include adequate information that will help students understand in connection with their occupation such problems as how to get a job; functions of employees' organizations; relations between management and employees; relations of government; conditions of employment and advancement? Such understandings as these are essential to the worker and should be stressed both in the general study of industrial occupations and in the specific vocational courses. Again, leadership from government and industry may be helpful.

IMPROVING INDUSTRIAL-ARTS INSTRUCTION

If the secondary school is to attempt realistically the job of vocational education, the first step in improving instruction in industrial arts is to increase greatly its provision throughout the country. As suggested earlier, two important means for such an expansion are (1) the extension of secondary education so that vocational training may be deferred and yet expanded, and (2) the provision of work-experience programs either in association with or in the absence of school facilities for specialized programs. Within existing industrial-arts courses or in new courses certain improvements indicated by the preceding questions are also desirable: (1) concentration on skills, processes, and information of as wide applicability as possible; (2) close cooperation with the consumers of the school's graduates, that is, the trades and industries; and (3) emphasis on the knowledge that will help every student become an intelligent worker in his field.

Business Education

PRESENT PROGRAM

The most widely offered of the specialized subjects other than home economics are the various courses commonly grouped under the title "commercial" or "business" education. Approximately two of every five high schools offer commercial courses, and one of every four students is enrolled in such a course. Here, too, some federal aid is available for certain courses in distributive occupations (trade, trans-

portation, and communication) by the George-Deen Act of 1936 and subsequent appropriations. The majority of courses in this field, however, are not reimbursable and, in fact, many have little claim toward vocational aims.

One recent writer on business education describes this field as "an educational stepchild in the family of secondary-school departments, without affectionate nurturing by either parent—general education or vocational training," and explains that it is neither generally acceptable for college entrance "except when it slips into the fold of creditable subjects through the backdoor of 'free electives,'" nor subsidized by federal vocational educational acts except for the distributive occupations.[11] Such subjects as commercial law, commercial geography, economics, and junior business training may be of considerable value in general education, although they are on an elective basis.

The most widely offered business courses aiming toward development of specific skills are bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand. Depending on the size, facilities, and aims of the school, one-, two-, or three-year sequences may be offered in these courses. In addition, the larger schools offer skills courses in office practice or management, retailing (distributive education), and clerical training. Related special courses are also frequently offered in business English and business arithmetic. Typing may be offered for personal use as well as for secretarial training. Where the vocational aim is emphasized, arrangements are frequently made for "cooperative plans" in which pupils in training get practice in offices and stores. Evening courses and other types of continuation courses are also offered to up-grade those on the job.

The vocational courses in business education are typically concerned with specific skills of typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping. Increasingly attention has been given to more adequate means of selecting students for these courses and to more intensive training methods. Although at first a dumping ground for the nonacademic pupil, the commercial department in many schools is becoming increasingly concerned with the output of clerks, stenographers, and bookkeepers. At the same time the absence of alternative specialized training in some smaller schools causes many pupils to elect these courses regardless of interest or proficiency.

THE NEEDS OF YOUTH AND BUSINESS EDUCATION

The potential contribution of certain general business subjects to the needs of youth for consumer information is undoubted. At

[11] Frederick G. Nichols, "Business Education—Clerical and Distributive," Chapter XIII in Part I, *Vocational Education* (Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943), p. 214.

the same time, any needed information in these subjects could be provided equally well by the core-curriculum or other general-education plans.

That the high school can develop salable skills for business is proved by the large number of high school graduates who each year go into business occupations and are successful. However, we must also note that many persons given business education in high school have difficulty in their occupations. Their lack of ability in personal relationships, in reading, spelling, and speaking, and their lack of interest in the job may be blamed usually on one or more of these factors: (1) lack of guidance by the school; (2) too early a concentration on skills at the sacrifice of general education; and (3) unrelatedness of business education to actual occupations. In connection with the latter point, it should be noted that changes in office practice, equipment, and requirements frequently advance more rapidly than changes in the high school curriculum. Professor Nichols has critized practice in this field because, he stated, "approximately 85 per cent of enrollments for vocational business courses are for shorthand, bookkeeping, and typewriting." [12]

IMPROVING BUSINESS EDUCATION

In view of the fact that about one of every five persons employed in the United States is engaged in one of the occupations for which business education provides training, it seems essential that the high school provide an adequate program. Such a program would be offered in all communities where clerical and sales jobs are available (that is, all communities except the distinctly agricultural) and would reflect in its emphasis the kinds of business occupations available. Through various occupational-guidance techniques, effort would be made to identify students who are likely to go into such occupations. Girls who lack essential linguistic abilities or boys who lack social maturity would be discouraged from going into training for stenography or salesmanship, respectively, unless and until these basic abilities are developed.

In an adequate program, instruction in the skills will be based on adequate information concerning the responsibilities of the stenographer, bookkeeper, or salesman. Skills taught will be related to the techniques used in the businesses of the community; for example, if machine bookkeeping is common in the community, the school will have bookkeeping machines. Courses will also be realistic in presenting actual working conditions. Instruction in typing and shorthand will be concerned with individual difficulties in sentence construction and spelling, as well as with those in speed and accuracy of transcription. Practical office problems will be stressed by work-experience activities in the school and community and by careful follow-up of all graduates of the program.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 215.

Other Subjects Having Possibilities for Specialized Education

As we have stated repeatedly, virtually all subjects can have possibilities for both general and specialized education. The only distinction we have tried to make is that of whether the subject is primarily concerned with general skills and understandings needed by all young persons, or with special skills needed by a few because of their plans for the future. We have just described and analyzed four subjects or groups of subjects that are largely vocational in purpose. We may now examine briefly several subjects that may also serve vocational purposes, and note how they may relate to the specialized aim of developing salable skills.

ART

Although art may be, and frequently is, taught in secondary schools as though the fundamental purpose were to train artists, it is doubtful whether the secondary school can afford such specialization. Art in the secondary school should serve three general purposes: (1) develop appreciations of the beauty in art; (2) develop interest in creative art and art study as leisure-time activities; (3) discover students with unique art ability and give them as much training as possible. This third purpose is a matter of specialized education and ordinarily will affect only a small number of pupils in even the largest high school. Unfortunately, art instruction is rarely available in schools other than those of considerable size. Where it does exist, the teacher may constantly search for students with special abilities in drawing, painting, designing, modeling, or other art activities, and give them as much assistance as possible in developing these abilities for vocational purposes.

MUSIC

In music also the high school must first be concerned with the development of appreciations and leisure-time interests by as many students as possible. Thereafter courses may be introduced to give those with special performance abilities opportunity to develop these abilities in instrumental groups and vocal organizations. Music teachers, too, may encourage youngsters interested in careers as musicians to carry their training forward as rapidly as is possible and desirable.

ENGLISH

Again, English may, but should not, be taught as though its purpose were to develop essayists and journalists of all students. At the same time, young persons with special interest and abilities in writing should have assistance in discovering and developing their abilities. Opportunities to do creative writing for the school paper, for radio scripts,

for dramatics, or just for enjoyment should result in the identification of students who merit and need special help and encouragement.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The relatively inconsequential contribution foreign languages have to offer general education was noted in Chapter XIII. Their value in the development of salable skills is also questionable. True, some colleges still require two years of foreign language for entrance, and students who wish to enter these colleges must meet the requirements, if their high school can afford to offer the courses. It is extremely doubtful, however, whether the languages have any relations to the vocation chosen in college other than making possible the admission ticket! It is also true that only a few high school graduates may enter the foreign service or the few other occupations requiring a knowledge of one or more foreign languages, but equally true that even these students are not likely to get far in the limited high school course with the languages they need. Actually, about the only valid justification the authors can find for inclusion of foreign languages in the high school curriculum is that of satisfying the intellectual curiosity of a few students who are interested in developing their linguistic interests and abilities.

MATHEMATICS

Mathematics, like foreign languages, is still required for entrance by a great many colleges and therefore has a specialized purpose for students who will attend college. As in the case of foreign languages, the claim that mathematics has peculiar values for success in general college courses has been pretty well disproved. Whether or not the small high school can afford to offer algebra or geometry to satisfy the few graduates who will go on to college should be decided in the light of all other demands on the school curriculum, although traditionally the college-entrance requirements have been served first. Correspondence courses and independent study may take care of the college-bound student.

Mathematics, however, does offer definite vocational values. Arithmetic, and perhaps even algebra and geometry, are essential in virtually all skilled trades. The mathematical skills needed here can usually be taught in the general mathematics courses, grades seven, eight, and nine, and in the trade courses. Students going into engineering, architecture, physical science, statistics, finance, and bookkeeping, of course, require advanced mathematics and should be provided as many of these courses as can be offered by the school or made available through correspondence, independent study, or tutoring.

SCIENCE

Chemistry and physics have certain vocational values as well as contributions to make in general education. Usually one or both of these courses is required for entrance into colleges of agriculture, home economics, engineering, medicine, and other fields. Furthermore, knowledges in one or more of these fields may be important to various occupations (or related leisure activities) not requiring college training, such as mechanics, photography, radio, homemaking, cleaning and dyeing, farming, and crafts. As pointed out in Chapter XIII, various phases of chemistry and physics should be included in the general-education field. In addition, as the size and facilities of the school permit, elective courses in these subjects should be available for students whose college or whose chosen occupations require completion of the courses.

Specialized Education for Exceptional Students

Education for exceptional students is commonly interpreted as that for the physically or mentally handicapped. Relatively few of these persons reach high school, although in larger centers, provision is increasingly being made for opportunities for them. Such opportunities include special training in suitable occupations as well as a continuation of general education with normal students.

A group of exceptional students for whom the school also has a real obligation are the intellectually gifted. As the secondary school has become increasingly nonselective, various means of providing for these students have been attempted: (1) they have been pushed into college-preparatory courses on the assumption that they needed languages and mathematics; (2) they have been appointed to positions of student leadership; (3) they have been placed in special sections, where homogeneous (ability) grouping is employed, on the theory that here they would not be held back by the less able students; (4) efforts have been made to individualize instruction within all classes through varied assignments, materials of different reading levels, and individual research; and (5) various kinds of honors courses and other special opportunities have been attempted. The authors would raise several questions about the philosophical soundness of the first three methods:

1. Is ability grouping consistent with a democratic philosophy of education? Does it develop good social values and adjustments?

2. Should able pupils be denied experiences in the practical arts areas? Cannot creative work be as challenging in art, shop, and laboratory as are exercises in language and mathematics?

3. Should leadership positions be awarded on the basis of intellectual ability only?

A combination of arrangements is probably desirable for meeting the specialized needs of the gifted students. In the first place, instruction should be as individualized as possible in all classes. Procedures to accomplish this purpose are described in Chapter XVII.

In the second place, a variety of special-interest offerings should include adequate activities of a challenging nature. Honors courses in reading, advanced science laboratory, creative writing groups, dramatics, journalism, periods for creative work in the shop and art room, and the like may be made available by means of additional subjects, the activity program, free periods, or other arrangements. Their value will be determined by such factors as the quality of faculty supervision, availability of materials and equipment, and procedures for selection of students.

An interesting innovation in the large South High School, Denver, is a "Speakers' and Writers' Bureau" in which able students are given opportunity to do various speaking and writing jobs for the school and community. It is doubtful whether schools have explored sufficiently the possibility of using able students to present school problems and programs to community groups or to undertake apprentice teaching in elementary and junior high schools.

In Battle Creek, Michigan, some two dozen high school youth recently served as apprentices in various schools, learning something of teaching problems and thus having opportunity to decide whether a teaching career might be attractive. Many other school and community services may be of real value to the school as well as challenging to more able pupils.

In the third place, a democratic organization of the school should provide ample opportunity for the identification and utilization of students with leadership abilities and for the exercise of their initiative.

Teachers and Subjects

Readers who plan to be social-studies, English, science, or mathematics teachers may question why they should be concerned about the problems discussed in this chapter, or vocational teachers may raise the same question about Chapter XIII. The authors believe that this attitude is one of the factors responsible for fundamental weaknesses in the high school curriculum.

As a prospective high school teacher you may well keep in mind such jobs as the following, which every teacher has regardless of the subjects he is assigned to teach:

1. Explaining to students, as they seek to decide what subjects to take, the nature of programs in the various curriculum areas.

2. Answering questions in every class that may be in some other teacher's "subject," or at least referring youngsters to the proper source.

3. Evaluating, as a faculty member, proposals made by pupils, parents, and teachers, for curriculum changes.

4. Interpreting to the public the program of the entire high school.

5. Planning with other members of the faculty for all-school projects and programs to which all faculty members and departments can contribute.

In other words, the high school teacher is, first of all, a member of a group having the common function of guiding students to meet general and special needs, and, secondly, an individual responsible for teaching one or more subjects in relation to the needs of particular groups of students. Thus to do a complete job necessitates a knowledge of the entire subject curriculum and of the relationship of each field to the general and specialized needs of pupils. Both beginning and experienced teachers would probably be helped by frequent visits to classes in fields entirely outside their particular assignments. Since this visiting may be impossible or at least not provided for, preservice study of materials such as those presented in Chapters XIII and XIV and those to which you are referred at the end of these chapters may be helpful as you prepare to become a member of the school faculty.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

American Youth Commission, *Youth and the Future.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.

Chapter VIII presents the recommendations of the commission regarding vocational education and adjustment.

Caswell, Hollis L. (ed.), *The American High School.* Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

See Chapter IX, "Provisions for Vocational Education," for a critical analysis of the problems of high schools with respect to vocational education.

Douglass, Harl R. (ed.), *The High School Curriculum.* New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947.

See Chapter 26, "Business Subjects in the Curriculum," and Chapter 28, "Industrial Arts in the Curriculum."

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944.

See the chapter on "Farmville" (III) and "American City" (IV) for policies and programs proposed for specialized education.

Every Youth in High School—Life Adjustment Education for Each. Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, no date. Mimeographed.

Report of the National Conference on Life Adjustment Education held in

Chicago in May, 1947, with analyses of the implications of the Prosser Resolution for the program of secondary schools. See especially pages 78 to 82 for "Implications Concerning Work Experience and Occupational Adjustment."

Grigsby, Rall I., "Vocational Education in Secondary Schools; Its Place in the Curriculum," North Central Association *Quarterly*, 15:295–305 (January), 1941.

Critical analysis of status of vocational education, with suggested standards for an adequate program.

Gruhn, William T., and Harl R. Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School.* New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947.

See Chapters 5 to 7 for an analysis of the curriculum of junior high schools.

Hatcher, Hazel M., and Mildred E. Andrews, *The Teaching of Homemaking.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945.

Describes curriculum planning and methods of classroom procedure in homemaking education, with emphasis on "teacher-pupil-parent planning."

Keller, Franklin J. (chm.), and others, *Vocational Education.* Part I, Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943.

Analyzes general problems in vocational education, and specific types as follows: agricultural (Chapter XII), business education (Chapter XIII), education for the service occupations (Chapter XIV), industrial education (Chapter XV), and homemaking education (Chapter XVI).

National Association of Secondary School Principals, Consumer Education Study, *Consumer Education in Your School.* Washington: The Association, 1947.

Emphasizes the need for consumer education and shows how a study of consumer problems and activities may be developed in various areas of the school curriculum.

Sexson, John A., and John W. Harbeson, *The New American College.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

See Chapter XXIII for a description of terminal education courses in public junior colleges.

Strong, Earl P., *The Organization, Administration, and Supervision of Business Education.* New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1944.

Chapters V and VI describe the curriculum in business education in relation to the types of educational agencies and organizations involved.

United States Office of Education, *Homemaking Education in Secondary Schools of the United States.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947.

Discusses the objectives of homemaking education and the program for secondary schools.

———, *Vocational Education in the Years Ahead.* A Report of a Committee to Study Postwar Problems in Vocational Education; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1945.

After discussing the function and purposes of vocational education, consideration is given to the fields of agriculture, business, homemaking, and industrial education, and occupational guidance.

XV CORE-CURRICULUM PLANS

What Is the Core Curriculum?

The basic idea of the core curriculum is not new in secondary education. Every secondary school in our history has had some core of subjects which were required of all students. The core curriculum to which we refer, however, is quite different from any group of required subjects or constants. In both the modern core curriculum and the required sequences, there is the idea that all high school students should have certain studies or experiences or learnings in common, but the modern core curriculum is an effort to improve the restricted and inadequate provisions of the traditional subject curriculum for the needs of youth.

CORE VERSUS SUBJECT CURRICULUM

Most, if not all, characteristics of the core curriculum have their opposites in the subject curriculum, and even in the modified subject curriculums identified in Chapter XII as correlated curriculum, fused curriculum, and broad fields curriculum. Some writers also distinguish the core curriculum from one sometimes described as an even more radical departure from the subject curriculum, "experience curriculum." The latter term, however, is not considered by the writers to be very useful, since any kind of a curriculum plan will eventuate in an experience curriculum, whether the experiences be planned in advance or on the spot and whether they be essentially vicarious (secondhand) or firsthand. The idea of core implies an organization, however flexible, and therefore can be more easily compared with a subject organization.

Table 19 points out some of the differences between characteristic features of the subject and the core-curriculum plans. We should, however, also note certain similarities. Both plans usually provide (1) elective subjects (and some subjects, such as physical education, may be required in addition to the core), (2) a time schedule, regardless of how many periods may be given to the core, (3) some system of marks, reports, and records, and (4) a school organization providing various activities more or less independent of any kind of classroom activities and maintaining various controls of student conduct.

TABLE 19

Core versus Subject Curriculum

POINT OF COMPARISON	CORE CURRICULUM	SUBJECT CURRICULUM
1. Purpose	To satisfy youth needs	To give mastery of the subject
2. Scope of Curriculum	Determined by youth needs	Determined by content of subjects
3. Sequence of Curriculum	Based on experience and development of adolescents	Based on logical order of subject matter
4. Time Allotment	Usually two or more periods	Usually one period
5. Basis of Instructional Organization	Problems or interests or needs	Logical division of subject matter
6. Classroom Procedure	Discussion, group and individual activities	Recitation, reading, drill
7. Role of Teacher	Guides pupil experiences	Assigns, examines, lectures, drills
8. Curriculum Planning	By teachers and pupils	Usually by "experts" in subject
9. Sources of Information	All available	Primarily books (though may be all available)
10. Evaluation	Are needs satisfied?	Is subject "mastered"?
11. Teacher Preparation	Broad general education plus professional	"Must know subject"

Because of the great variation in the practice and theory of core curriculum, a definition is not easy, nor would it be particularly helpful. Two things we can and should do: (1) refer you to some of the excellent descriptions of core curriculums available in the current literature of secondary education, so that you can study these plans in detail; and (2) list and explain the characteristics that distinguish core curriculum from other plans.

DESCRIPTIONS OF CORE-CURRICULUM PLANS

The literature of secondary education for the past ten years or so contains many descriptions and analyses of core-curriculum plans, although there are wide differences in the plans described. In general, the criterion for designating a curriculum plan as a core curriculum seems to be that it must represent a change in orientation from that of the traditional subject curriculum, and perhaps this is a fairly adequate definition if we lump under "core curriculum" as many authors do, "integrated curriculum," "experience curriculum," "social living courses," and related innovations. "Core curriculum" is also frequently used synonymously with "general education," although the present authors view core curriculum as merely one, though an important, approach to general education.

Paul R. Pierce's *Developing a High School Curriculum* (American Book Company, 1942) is an excellent source on how one large high school in an underprivileged area of Chicago developed a curriculum suited to the needs of its students over a seven-year period. Much of this book relates the experiences of the faculty in developing a core curriculum around certain "functions of living" organized in core fields (English, social studies, and science, especially) taught on a cooperating-teacher basis.

General Education in the American High School, prepared by the General Education Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Scott, Foresman & Company, 1942), is an excellent treatment of the entire field of general education. Chapter 8, in particular, describes how various core curriculum plans work: Wells High School, Chicago (the school described in more detail in Pierce's book cited in the preceding paragraph); Eugene, Oregon, High School; Carpenteria, California, Union High; Moultrie, Georgia, High School.

Paul Leonard's excellent book on high school curriculum, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum* (Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1946) contains a chapter (12) on principles of core curriculum in which are reviewed the core-curriculum outlines (showing organization centers) of the Eugene, Oregon, High School; the Santa Barbara County, California high schools; Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa;

Carpinteria, California, Union High School; East and West High Schools, Denver, Colorado; Will Rogers High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

A collection of case descriptions of the core curriculum is contained in Harold Spears' *The Emerging High School Curriculum* (American Book Company, 1940). Spears describes how various types of core programs operated at Pine Mountain, Kentucky; Rappahannock District High School, Center Cross, Virginia; Carpinteria, California, Union High School; Yuba City, California, Union High School; Washougal, Washington, High School; Norris, Tennessee, School; Secondary School of Colorado State College of Education, Greeley; Los Angeles, California; California Co-operating Schools; Denver, Colorado; Evanston, Illinois, Township High School; Evansville, Indiana.

Essential features of a core are identified in a chapter by H. L. Caswell in *The American High School,* (Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society, Harpers & Brothers, 1946, Chapter VIII). A number of core programs and approaches are described in Harold Alberty's *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum* (The Macmillan Company, 1948, Chapter VI). Core curriculum plans developed by the high schools in the Eight-Year Study are described in the report of the Commission on Relation of School and College, Progressive Education Association, entitled *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story* (Harper & Brothers, 1943).

You may find the description of the curriculum of mythical American City as described in *Education for All American Youth* (National Education Association, 1944) even more helpful than those of the actual programs. This publication and the related *Planning for American Youth* (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1944) give detailed outlines of the hypothetical core course, Common Learnings. Specific materials on common learnings for one school system are presented in a May, 1948, publication of the Minneapolis Public Schools entitled *A Primer for Common Learnings.*

Many other materials in the form of curriculum bulletins and articles in such professional journals as the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, *Educational Leadership,* and *Clearing House* will illustrate the core-curriculum plans that have been or are being tried out. As you read these articles, however, and the sources cited earlier, you will note that the number of high schools in the United States that are used in the reports is insignificant compared with the total number of our high schools. Even if we consider every innovation in curriculum that departs from a strict subject organization to be core curriculum, the plain fact is that as yet the core curriculum has merely scratched the surface of a subject curriculum entrenched throughout three centuries of American secondary education. At the same time, new schools are adopting core plans, and the idea has been widely accepted in curriculum

theory. We may hope that it is the answer to the failures of the traditional curriculum to meet adequately the needs of high school students.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CORE-CURRICULUM PLANS

The core curriculum provides a longer and more flexible instructional period. That the core curriculum provides a longer and more flexible instructional period is illustrated by the following daily programs a high school youth might have under the regular subject curriculum as contrasted with one under a core-curriculum plan:

PERIOD	SUBJECT CURRICULUM	CORE CURRICULUM
I	Subject A (required)	
II	Subject B (required)	Core
III	Study Hall	
IV	Subject C (elective)	Subject A (elective)
V	Physical Education (required)	Physical Education (required)
VI	Subject D (elective)	Subject B (elective)

Under the subject curriculum in this illustration the day is divided into six equal divisions, whereas under the other plan one half of the school day is given to the core program and the remainder is divided into three equal parts. The core-curriculum plan is further illustrated in Table 20 by hypothetical daily schedules (by periods) of three students and five teachers in a junior high school having a core curriculum.

The high school curriculum has long been criticized because of its inflexible scheduling, which forces youngsters to move from one class to another too frequently and with regard only to the time schedule. The effect of such scheduling is to emphasize an artificial compartmentalization of knowledge, to justify regimentation procedures within the classroom, and to prevent the organization of learning experiences that cannot be completed within the usual period of about forty to fifty minutes clear of passing from class to class. Thus a longer and more flexible period is desired to permit less hurried exploration of material and information related to the problem at hand, a less formal, even if slower, discussion and study procedure, and more experiences that cannot be confined to a single period. These longer and more flexible periods are provided by various methods described in the following paragraphs.

1. Two or three or even more class periods are devoted to the core program, as illustrated in Table 20. The teacher has one group for three periods instead of a different group each period, and the group has one teacher instead of three. These three periods may be secured by substitution for three subjects or for two subjects and one study period, or two periods by substitution for two subjects or for one subject and one study

TABLE 20

Illustrative Pupil and Teacher Schedules in a Core Curriculum
(Junior High School)

	PERIOD I	PERIOD II	PERIOD III	PERIOD IV	PERIOD V	PERIOD VI
Pupil A—Grade 7	Core: English, Social Studies, Arithmetic			Science (M-W) Phys. Ed. (T-Th-F)	Shop (Boy) or Home Ec. (Girl)	Art (T-Th) Music (M-W-F)
Pupil B—Grade 8	Core: English, Social Studies, Arithmetic			Dramatics (M-W) Reading (T-Th-F)	Shop (Boy) or Home Ec. (Girl)	Phys. Ed. (M-W-F) Science (T-Th)
Pupil C—Grade 9	Core: English, Social Studies		General Science	General Mathematics	Art	Health (M-W) Phys. Ed. (T-Th-F)
Teacher A	7th Grade Core			8th Grade Core		
Teacher B	8th Grade Core			9th Grade Core		Dramatics 8
Teacher C	9th Grade Core		General Science 9	9th Grade Core		General Science 9
Teacher D	8th Grade Core			General Mathematics	General Mathematics	General Mathematics
Teacher E	Phys. Ed. 7 Science 7	Phys. Ed. 8 Science 8	Phys. Ed. 9 Health 9	Phys. Ed. 7 Science 7	Phys. Ed. 8 Science 8	Phys. Ed. 9 Health 9

period. Probably the most usual plan is to give one half (three periods) of the school day in junior high schools to the core, and one third (two periods) in senior high.

2. Clever scheduling of homeroom periods, counseling periods, and the study periods may provide for a lengthened period with the same teacher. This device was used in the Wells High School and in Denver. In such an arrangement, a given core group will have the same teacher for homeroom, counseling, study hall, and social studies. However, the ultimate aim of the core programs is to absorb the usual activities of homeroom, counseling, and study hall into the core, so that one block of time with the same teacher is the essential characteristic.

3. A common but probably less desirable practice is some kind of block scheduling in which a group of three teachers, for example, will have three groups of youngsters in common. Each teacher is a specialist in one subject, and is assigned each group for this subject. By means of cooperative planning, exchange of classes, combination of classes, use of teachers' planning periods to extend the time of one teacher with a particular group, and similar procedures this arrangement may have a good many advantages over the usual subject schedule, but it encourages continued reliance on the subjects. Pierce reported that from experimentation with this plan at Wells High School, "it was clearly evident that pupils were receiving far more individual attention, that their work was being far more effectively integrated, and that the teachers were finding their routine duties much lighter than under the regular setup." [1]

4. Still another plan provides for one teacher having responsibility for a core group for two or more periods, but with freedom to call on other teachers for special work as necessary. Administrative arrangements may provide that the other teachers either be assigned to the group as part of their load or have free time available for use by various core groups. Either arrangement is costly, of course, and neither has been widely employed.

The core curriculum provides guidance for each youth by the core teacher. According to Pierce, "to make the classroom the chief vehicle of guidance was an objective from the earliest days of our core curriculum." [2] Spears concluded from his study of the various core plans that "as the core curriculum is being developed, it is absorbing much of the guidance program, formerly handled as a separate function." [3] One of the major purposes of the core-curriculum plan is to accomplish just this goal, the guidance of each student by a teacher who knows him well. Com-

[1] Paul R. Pierce, *Developing a High School Curriculum* (New York: American Book Company, 1942), p. 243.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 227.

[3] Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum* (New York: American Book Company, 1940), p. 377.

pare the knowledge you might have of a student you see, among 179 others, when you are teaching six classes of English one hour a day, with your knowledge of a student you see, among only 59 others, when you are teaching only two core groups three hours a day. The core teacher may have specialized help from counselors, class advisers, and specialists in occupational guidance, but the core teacher should know each student better than does any other school worker and therefore be in a position to know when he is in need of special services.

The common-learnings program, according to a Minneapolis publication, provides for guidance by giving the teacher these opportunities:

1. To become well acquainted with each pupil by
   a. Studying cumulative records
   b. Living with and observing pupils during this longer block of time
   c. Obtaining and filing for ready use information from questionnaires, biographies, anecdotal records, interviews with pupils and their parents, significant materials obtained from the visiting teacher, nurse, counselor, and other teachers
2. To serve as a co-ordinating agent and to provide a clearing house for various persons who are dealing with his pupils so that these persons work together rather than separately for the best growth of the individual. This involves also enlisting the aid of other teachers, the nurse, the visiting teacher, the counselor, and others to the end that all these special skills and services available in the school are used to help individual pupils
3. To develop an informal, friendly understanding with his pupils so that they will come readily and confidently to talk over their individual problems. Since the common learnings organization calls for informality and flexibility and teacher-pupil planning, this close relationship can be more easily developed than in other classes. Advising and assisting each pupil in everyday matters which have to do with his personal growth might include such personality problems as temper, shyness, personal appearance, how to win friends, work habits, attendance.
4. To provide for discussion of common problems which are close to the real life of the group. Emphasis on orientation, manners and conduct, attitudes and beliefs, and the work of the world become opportunities for group guidance as well as for learning in the traditional sense.
5. To provide practice for living together in a democratic manner. The common learnings teacher has an unlimited opportunity to appraise the needs of the group and the needs of the individual in the group and to help pupils get those experiences which will develop them socially as well as intellectually in a society where the ability to get along with the group is of paramount civic importance. Boys and girls should be taught to recognize and build a tolerance for individual differences in themselves as well as in others, and to understand that, regardless of individual differences, each individual can be an asset to the society in which he lives.[4]

[4] Minneapolis Public Schools, Division of Secondary Education, *A Primer for Common Learnings* (Minneapolis, Minn.: The Schools, May, 1948), pp. 37–38.

The operation of the plan for guidance purposes is further illustrated in the following description of the guidance responsibilities of core (common learnings) teachers in the Policies Commission's mythical American City:

> *Teachers of "Common Learning" courses* are responsible for general counselling of all the students in their classes. Each "Common Learning" teacher normally advises from fifty to sixty students. In tenth grade, these teachers spend the two weeks prior to the opening of school year in individual conferences with students—one hour or more to each student. Parents are asked to attend this first conference, and at least one of them usually does. . . . This same teacher continues to advise the student throughout the tenth grade on all matters relating to general education plans and personal problems. The counselor ("Common Learnings" teacher) keeps the student's personal history record and receives and records the report from other staff members. All communications and contacts with parents clear through the counselor.[5]

Among the most serious shortcomings of the traditional high school curriculum are the difficulty of sustained personal relationships between teachers and pupils under the pressure of schedules and movement of classes, and the inadequate guidance students are characteristically given with their educational, vocational, and personal problems. The problem is particularly acute because of the considerable change that frequently occurs in school organization at the end of the elementary school. Unless the elementary school is departmentalized, the youngster usually goes abruptly from a sixth- or eighth-grade situation where he has been a member of a group of about thirty working with the same teacher throughout the day and year, to a seventh- or ninth-grade situation where he may have as many as six different teachers and be a member of as many different class groups. Consequently, all too frequently he suddenly is without a person who knows him well, to whom he can go for advice and help. Establishment of short homeroom periods, employment of counselors who perhaps can give him two twenty-minute interviews in the course of the year, and similar inadequate devices do not replace the close relationship with the one teacher of elementary school days. The core teacher who has fewer students for a longer period of time is ideally situated to ease the transition from elementary to high school.

Core-curriculum plans emphasize problems rather than subjects. Perhaps the major dissatisfaction with the subject curriculum is its characteristic lack of relationship to the problems students experience or anticipate. As we noted in Chapters XIII and XIV, it is perfectly possible for most subjects to contribute to these problems, but the influence of logically organized subject matter is so great that the tendency of nearly all subject teachers is to follow this organization, far removed as it

[5] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944), pp. 310–311.

usually is from life-problem situations. Furthermore, few students' needs fit neatly into any one category of subject matter. As previous chapters illustrate, several subjects may have more or less direct relationships to any one imperative educational need. As a result, at no one place in the subject curriculum is such a need exhaustively attacked, and the attack on each need tends to be piecemeal and in general inadequate.

Hence core-curriculum plans tend to disregard traditional subject-matter compartments and, instead, bring such subject matter as needed and available to bear on the problem at hand. Examination of some of the problems around which instruction is organized in illustrative core plans indicates that the organizing centers are potentially more real to students than are the traditional subject-matter divisions of which they are independent.

The core curriculum at Wells High School aimed to develop understandings of the following "functions of living": social relationships, economic consciousness, health, leisure, thought and its communication, and ethical and spiritual character.[6] The broad functions served there somewhat as guides for the selection of units within the various core subjects, for the Wells plan assumed that separate teachers within subject fields would cooperate in the development of core-curriculum units. Such a plan, of course, might result in little reorganization of the subjects, although Pierce's description emphasizes the problems approach.

In the Denver, Colorado, high schools a course, General Education, at the tenth-grade level is primarily concerned with group guidance. Although a one-period class, it does have many characteristics of the core organization. A partial description of the course of East High School indicates the problems considered:

> The units in General Education are mostly in the counseling problem areas. Each group begins with a unit on orientation to East High, followed generally by a short unit of a week or two on How to Study at East High. This includes how to use the library materials, as well as how to outline, take notes, interview, organize and make a report, etc. Since the formation of good study habits is essential, the unit is most effective when taken as a part of each following unit. A later unit which all groups take is a unit on Vocations, which includes a survey of major vocational areas, an analysis of some personal abilities, aptitudes, and interests, and a more complete study of several specialized vocational fields. A testing program in 10th grade accompanies this unit as well as the educational guidance unit.
>
> Each General Education class of the past two years has also had weekly work on current affairs and a 6 weeks unit on Driving and Safety. These two are not areas particularly in the field of group guidance, and might not be continued if increased emphasis is to be put on guidance problems. Each class also has some time for working on problems which they as a group wish to choose.

[6] See Table III, "Organization of the Curriculum," in Pierce, *op. cit.*, pp. 132–133.

Some from this classification have been: Intercultural Relations or Minority Groups, Use of Leisure Time, Shifting Horizons (global geography), and particular current problems, and one or two have drilled on certain basic skills.[7]

Problem areas for the core curriculum of the Ohio State University School in 1948 were as follows:

TENTH GRADE

School Living
Problems of Healthful Living
Problems of Living in an Urban Society
Problems of the Family as a Basic Social Unit
The Development of the American Scene

ELEVENTH GRADE

School Living
Problems of Living in the Atomic Age
The Problems of Establishing Beliefs
The Problems of Making a Living (Exploring Vocations)
Current World Problems

TWELFTH GRADE

School Living
Problems of Producer-Consumer Economics
Implications of Scientific Advancement
Major Conflicting Ideologics
The Bases for Determining Values by Which to Live[8]

The tenth-grade common-learnings courses in American City was reported in *Education for All American Youth* as organized around these areas: orientation to the school, students' use of leisure time, occupations of American City, life in American City, family life, consumer economics, and use of the English language. The Policies Commission's description of this proposed core program emphasizes that "the present problems of youth, the needs growing out of their daily lives as boys and girls, should have a place in this course no matter how urgently other matters might press for time."[9]

A number of schools have organized experimental courses which incorporate all features of the core-curriculum plan other than the longer blocks of time. To the extent that they represent departures from traditional subjects and are given a central (or required) status they may be considered as core plans. Illustrative of such courses is the Basic Living course required of all tenth-graders in the Battle Creek, Michigan, High School. The major problems to which this course is devoted are

[7] East High School, Denver, Colorado, *General Education, Guidance, and Counseling Program* (Denver, Colo.: The School, April 26, 1948). Mimeographed.
[8] Ohio State University School, *Tentative Statement of the Core Program in Grades 10, 11, and 12* (Columbus, Ohio: The School, no date). Mimeographed.
[9] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 250.

1. Orientation to the school
2. The food we eat
3. How our body works
4. Understanding ourselves and getting along with others
5. Achieving a happy family life
6. Personal and community health

Study of the organization of these various plans and of other similar plans suggests several conclusions:

1. The typical organizing center for instruction in the core curriculum is a problem experienced or anticipated by young persons, and one for which appropriate solutions can be found by pupils and teachers in the available resources.

2. Although the organizing centers in the core are independent of subject organization, the core typically replaces two or more subjects and includes more material from these than from other subjects. English and social studies are most commonly replaced by the core, although science and mathematics are also frequently involved.

3. The organizing center may be related to the subject matter of various subjects, but it may also be susceptible to a strictly subject approach, if that approach is preferred by the teachers. Thus the way in which the problem is attacked is a more significant criterion for evaluating the vitality of the core curriculum than the mere designation of the problem.

4. The selection of actual problems for study has to be done in the teaching situation rather than according to some predetermined plan of organization. Otherwise the approach may be as formalized as the chronological study of history.

Core-curriculum plans employ cooperative planning procedures by all concerned. The traditional secondary school classroom has few characteristics of a democratic situation. One person, the teacher, gives the directions, makes the plans, evaluates the outcomes. The other persons present, the students, recite when called on, undertake the work assigned, and not infrequently devote their planning to ways and means of evading assignments and regulations concerning classroom organization. In marked contrast with this classroom is one where teacher and youth divide responsibility for classroom management, and share in the planning, execution, and evaluation of all classroom activities. In this cooperative atmosphere, youth have freedom to move about, to work individually or in such a group as shown in Plate 25.

Such cooperative planning may exist in any classroom, whether organized on a subject or a core basis. Other features of the core plan, however, greatly facilitate this type of working relationship. The slower, more deliberate discussion of a cooperative group proceeds more freely when there is longer time. Teachers are freer to encourage the study of

pupil-suggested problems where there is no well-defined body of subject matter that tends to fix the boundaries of study as well as to press the class "to cover the subject." The teacher may more easily become a fellow investigator when the problem at hand is not definitely covered by the textbook or course of study. People who are well acquainted plan and work together better, generally speaking, than those whose acquaintanceship is cut short by the subject schedule.

PLATE 25

A PLANNING COMMITTEE AT WORK. With a flexible schedule and room, pupils can make plans for the class. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

Where and how does cooperative planning take place in the core class? We may answer this with respect to cooperative planning on the part of teachers and pupils with a series of excerpts from several descriptions of core plans already cited. Note that at Wells High School cooperative planning appeared inefficient at first but proved wholly worth-while:

To take the time necessary for the planning process proved a difficult hurdle for pioneering teachers. It appeared much more economical and "efficient" to prepare the work assignments in advance and to assign them without "waste" to the pupils! Our teachers, however, strove to keep in mind that the "why" and "how" were learnings eminently worthy of the time that they consumed. A result of the cooperative planning was that pupils working individually and

in groups started work with a clear conception not only of their respective activities but also of the precise relation of these activities to the accomplishment of the unit enterprise itself.[10]

Planning that is truly cooperative results in new methods or previously unplanned methods, and a description of the Eugene, Oregon, core plan, emphasizes this experimental nature:

Students participate in the setting up of purposes and determining of methods, as well as content, in many of the units of this sequence. They have developed an organization through the election of a president and secretary, along with cooperating work committees in each of the core classes, through which they work and in which they assume responsibility. Numerous experimental studies and procedures are developed by teachers and students through these student class organizations. Indeed, the visitor is struck by the truly experimental nature of the program, each teacher and each group being free to develop new content and method which seem to be of real importance to them.[11]

The teachers' guide for the Basic Living course in the Battle Creek high school describes the group process as follows:

Early in the evolution of the Basic Living idea, the value of the course in terms of group guidance was apparent. The fact that public education in America is committed to the group process rather than the tutorial system made Basic Living a "must" for all sophomores because experiences in general education could be afforded all tenth graders. In the planning of the course the group process was constantly thought of in terms both of method and of objective.

There are two or three underlying bases for the importance of the group process in a course such as Basic Living. First, the group process provides a type of therapy which is important for the problem-solving approach. Students interested in their own personal problems may gain much in the consideration of these problems on an impersonal basis by themselves and their classmates. The identification of problems in the group situation, setting up of hypotheses and conducting research on a cooperative basis, and joint testing and evaluation by students and teacher give real support to individuals needing help and encouragement for their own personal problems and their solution.

Secondly, the group process allows for real experience in weighing the importance of the individual and the group. American society is sorely in need of more careful consideration of ways of working for the group welfare, at the same time preserving the rights and dignity of the individual citizen. Boys and girls in high school need more opportunity in school to work in situations which will lead them to realize that the greatest good for the individual comes only when his welfare is closely identified and tied with the greatest good for his group.

And finally, the group process is highly important in Basic Living because

[10] Pierce, *op. cit.*, pp. 116–117.

[11] Stephen M. Corey and others, *General Education in the American High School* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1942), p. 205.

of the tentative nature of the course. With such aims and purposes as have been outlined in Section II, this guide can give no final answers, no perfect panaceas for the problems which boys and girls face. This course is predicated upon the idea that best answers will be arrived at by joint planning, research and evaluation on the part of the students, teachers, parents, and the community as a whole. Here is a belief in the ability of men and women, boys and girls to work out rationally their problems, and a confidence that the solutions reached in such a climate will always be more sound than those which might be proposed by experts, authorities, and professional theorists.[12]

Education for All American Youth describes the entire planning process for the Common Learnings core as follows:

. . . . Only the general purposes for the course as a whole and the major aims, areas, and emphases of each year's work were to be planned (by teachers) in advance for all classes. Within these limits, it was agreed, each teacher and class should have latitude to plan their own order of learning and choose the details of content.

Moreover, student participation in planning was deemed essential. Only by sharing in the planning would students be able to grasp the relationship between the various learnings of the course. Integration of learning, someone pointed out, can occur in only one place—in the mind of the learner. An "Integrated" course prepared by teachers alone may appear to be such a collection of unrelated fragments to the student who has not had a part in planning it.[13]

The core curriculum facilitates varied learning experiences. Learning experiences may be as varied in a history class as in a core class, but characteristically they are not. The characteristic learning experiences in the subject curriculum are reading and listening, whereas the core curriculum adds *seeing* and *doing*. The nature of learning experiences in the subject curriculum is restricted by (1) the time available, (2) the logical organization of subject matter and textbooks, and (3) traditional procedures of recitation, testing, and drill. None of these restrictions need exist in the core-curriculum plan. Types of experiences widely found in core classes include:

1. Round-table discussions
2. Listening to and discussing radio broadcasts
3. Seeing and discussing films
4. Carrying on committee studies
5. Visiting individually and in groups community institutions
6. Conducting surveys in school and community
7. Reading varied materials in classroom and library

[12] Battle Creek Senior High School, Battle Creek, Michigan, *Basic Living—A Guide for Developing Problem-Solving Experiences for Tenth Graders* (Battle Creek, Mich.: The School, September, 1947), p. 6. Mimeographed.

[13] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 251.

8. Writing letters, editorials, articles, school publications
9. Visiting and conducting other classes
10. Preparing blackboard summaries of discussions
11. Arranging school assemblies and programs
12. Listening to speakers and consultants
13. Collecting clippings, pamphlets, and other materials
14. Operating school services
15. Reporting results of investigations to the group

Such experiences are generally regarded as possessing more educational value for the average student than the reading-reciting procedure too typical of secondary school classes. Although the core-curriculum plan recognizes the importance of reading and drill, it seeks to use reading as one method of learning and to make reading more interesting and meaningful by relating it to firsthand experience and to problems of significance to readers.

Core-Curriculum Plans and the Needs of Youth

Whether any curriculum element actually contributes to the satisfaction of the needs of youth depends on whether it can be and is so organized and carried forward that it provides the experiences whereby students may find needed skills and understandings. In our analysis (see Chapter XII) of the potential relationship of the various curriculum elements to the ten imperative educational needs, we indicated that the core curriculum *could* contribute to each need. Having just described the characteristic features of this curriculum plan, we may now review briefly their possible contributions to each of the needs.

In the first place, almost every need is such that no one subject includes all the information the student should have to gain satisfactory skills and understandings for dealing with this need during and after high school. The core curriculum, drawing no tight lines between the various subjects, has the unique opportunity of permitting and facilitating students and teachers to search various subjects and sources for information on the various problems involved in several imperative needs. That is, core curriculum has the flexibility and yet the breadth of learning opportunity essential to the developmental tasks (see Chapter X) of youth.

The need of *salable skills* includes need of study of occupational opportunities, conditions of employment, relations with employers and government, and methods of analyzing qualifications and securing training and jobs. In a core group studying important problems without regard to subject lines, all of these matters may be investigated. The group may make a survey of occupational opportunities in the school and in the community. Committees organized on the basis of occupational interests may investigate more fully particular fields. Vocational counselors and

representatives from various interest fields may be utilized to bring information of general interest to the group.

The need of *health information* is not satisfied by material in any one subject. Core plans may include group study of such questions as changes in the body, relation of physical change to social and emotional development, personal hygiene, diet and exercise. Health specialists, physical educators, biologists, and nurses may all be consulted in the course of the core unit, but as needed to help with the problems involved and not because they teach health or some other subject.

The need for *civic competence* involves understandings of democratic processes, techniques of communication, political organization, government, group structure, and related areas unique to no one subject. In the core curriculum information can be drawn from each area as problems are investigated.

The needs of youth with respect to *family life* involve many subjects in the curriculum: home economics, industrial arts, health, social studies, science. In the core curriculum such problems as marriage, child care, divorce, and social life of the family may answer students' questions more directly and more completely than can scattered units in the various subject fields.

Youths' needs as *consumers* also draw on many subjects. Budgeting, standards, consumer organizations and aids, how prices are set, and quality determination are problem areas that students may anticipate as they buy their clothes, stretch their allowance, or plan for college. Core units may utilize the information from science, home economics, and mathematics to help in solving these problems.

Because the core plan is based on a problem-solving approach rather than on a logical organization of subject matter, it facilitates application of the *scientific method.* Only such background and principles must be studied as apply to the problem. Carried to an extreme application, the logical organization means that pupils interested in studying a problem concerning local government in connection with the civics class must first learn the forms, machinery, and services of local government—then consider the problem. In the core unit, these facts are studied as they apply.

Furthermore, satisfaction of some of these and other needs is facilitated by a lengthened period of study, by opportunity to move about in school and community, and by freedom to consult various teachers and other resource persons. For example, occupational surveys involve extended conferences with civic officers and others, committee visits to industries, and interviews with counselors. Study of local government can best be conducted through visits to local governmental agencies. Teachers of science, home economics, and industrial arts can help core committees identify materials and information needed in respect to core problems.

The development of aesthetic appreciations is facilitated by time to visit the museum, or a beautiful building, or an unusual farm. Freedom within the core period for social conversation, discussion of movies and books, and for listening to radio programs helps develop leisure interests.

Finally, the processes of study and investigation inherent in the core curriculum facilitate the acquisition of skills and understanding involved in certain needs. The basic principle of the core is that of cooperative action, based on respect for individual needs and rights. Furthermore, in the core this action follows the scientific method of solving problems. Skills of reading, listening, writing, and talking are developed more readily in this organization because the activities of individual students are organized in relation to their particular needs and interests, and also because the students are working with a teacher who knows them well enough to help them develop skills.

The subject curriculum may be related just as closely to the various needs, but it has handicaps to overcome that are foreign to better core-curriculum plans: inflexible schedules, subject-matter divisions, and traditional procedures and sources.

Putting Core-Curriculum Plans to Work

You have probably concluded by now that the authors have a good deal of faith in core-curriculum plans as a means of improving secondary education. Yes, we have, because we have observed, together with most other students of secondary education, how unrelated much of the typical subject curriculum is to the students' real concerns, present and future, and because we have further observed that core-curriculum plans seem to provide a means of relating the high school to the needs of youth without occasioning a complete reorganization or replacement of the secondary school.

What do you think by now? Do you believe that the subject curriculum can ever satisfy these needs? Do you agree with the authors that the core curriculum, still retaining elective subjects for specialized education, has fewer handicaps to overcome in providing a functional school program?

You may have difficulty in deciding what you think about a core curriculum because you have had no chance to see one at work. That is the difficulty of most teachers—they recognize the deficiencies of the usual secondary school program but have had no experience with any other kind. What can be done under these circumstances? How could you as a new teacher going into a school organized on a strictly subject basis do anything about core curriculum? How could a group of dissatisfied teachers put the core curriculum to work? How could a principal bring about a reorganization of the curriculum? How can secondary education utilize more fully the potential advantages of core-curriculum plans?

SECURING FACULTY AGREEMENT ON REORGANIZATION

Probably the most ineffective thing you as a new teacher could do would be to propose that the school go on a core basis. Even more ineffective in the long run would be an arbitrary rescheduling of the school by the principal so that the school goes on a core rather than a subject schedule. Cooperative planning is just as essential in curriculum reorganization by the faculty as it is in the core classroom. Any curriculum reorganization that is not the result of faculty thinking and agreement is doomed to suspicion, difficulty, and probable failure.

The starting point in a reorganization of the curriculum should be some advantage recognized by all or most faculty members. Perhaps there is a realization that too many students who will never go to college are taking college-preparatory work, or that too many students are dropping out of school before graduation, or that too many behavior problems are evident. Faculty study of such problems almost inevitably results in consideration of the curriculum and means of its improvement. Here leadership must be ready to suggest alternatives and means of putting them into effect.

In another school there may be general complacency regarding the curriculum. Here the dissatisfied teacher, the principal, or even the new teacher may quietly bring to light data regarding the gap between the school's program and the postschool occupations of students, or regarding the students' own criticisms of the school. Perhaps the faculty may come to serious consideration of the school's program in the light of the ten imperative educational needs or any other agreed-upon classification of the needs of young persons.

Whatever the starting point and method of study, it is essential that any school shifting from a subject curriculum to some valid form of core reorganization have faculty agreement as to the need and purpose of the reorganization. This agreement is important even though only a few teachers are to be directly involved in the new program, for otherwise there may be misunderstanding and lack of cooperation. Pupils and parents must also understand and agree in the beginning, or here, too, there will be suspicion and obstacles. The persons involved in the original planning become partners and assistants rather than critics and disbelievers, and frequently pupils and parents are more convinced of reasons for change than are teachers. In fact, their criticisms may provide the starting point for faculty agreement.

PLANNING THE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF THE CURRICULUM

Every curriculum plan has scope and sequence, whether determined by textbook, course of study, social analysis, or the needs of youth. The scope of the curriculum refers to its general direction and

boundaries: that is, the scope of the subject curriculum is defined by the subjects included, and that of the core curriculum by the general problems, needs, or areas to which it is planned to contribute. We illustrated the scope of several core plans earlier in this chapter. It should be noted that the ten imperative educational needs might constitute the scope of a core curriculum, although the core would need to be supplemented by many other opportunities to meet individual students' specialized needs in some of the areas. Sequence refers to the order of experience; that is, sequence in history is chronological, but sequence in the core curriculum has no such easily defined basis. One principle being given increased recognition is that the development of adolescents should guide the determination of sequence. That is, the pressing problems, concerns, and interests of youth change as adolescents develop physically and emotionally, and their learning experiences should reflect this sequence.

A first step for the faculty that has decided to experiment with some core organization is that of making certain plans, however tentative, regarding the scope and sequence of the core. Early in this planning process the faculty, or whatever part of the faculty is directly concerned, must decide how much planning is to be done jointly or individually by core teachers. A sound guide for this planning is suggested by the statement of principles in *Education for All American Youth* regarding the Common Learning course:

> Only the general purposes for the course as a whole and the major aims, areas, and emphasis of each year's work were to be planned in advance for all classes. Within these limits, it was agreed, each teacher and class should have latitude to plan their own order of learning and choose the details of content.[14]

Specifically, the core planners must answer these questions:

1. What are the general purposes of the core curriculum, that is, what needs of youth shall we seek to meet through this element of the curriculum?
2. What particular problems or needs of youth related to these general purposes should we anticipate for each year, even though we must expect variation in their occurrence and satisfaction?
3. What principles shall we rely on for determining the order of procedure during the year?

ARRANGING SCHEDULES AND FACILITIES

Preplanning has just begun when the faculty has agreed to undertake a core plan and has reached certain tentative decisions as to scope and sequence of the plan. However, these agreements and decisions frequently will involve consideration and perhaps agreement as to matters of schedule and facilities. Suppose, for example, that the faculty of a

[14] *Ibid,* p. 251.

school has decided to make some departure in grades ten to twelve from the previous subject curriculum, has decided that emphasis in the core plan for these grades shall be determined by certain of the imperative educational needs, and that the sequence for each year shall depend on the teacher-pupil group concerned. Here are other questions that must be answered:

1. How will teachers be assigned to the core?
   a. One teacher for each core group?
   b. As many teachers for each core group as there are periods included in the core, with each core teacher being assigned to as many core groups as there are periods included?
   c. One coordinating teacher for each core group, with assistance available from other teachers? If so, how is this assistance to be made available, on schedule or on call?
2. Will core teachers handle only core classes, or elective subjects as well? The teacher's own interests and competencies should probably supply the answer. However, it must be remembered that one purpose of core organization is to limit the number of pupils for each teacher. Two core groups give the teacher only 60 pupils to get acquainted with, whereas one core group and three subject classes mean twice as many, or 120 pupils.
3. What length of time will be given core classes? One, two, three, or even more periods?
4. What relation will the core period have to
   a. Homeroom periods?
   b. Counseling periods?
   c. Study hall periods?
   d. Special rooms such as library, arts and crafts, music, auditorium?
5. What kind of furniture will be needed for core classes? Tables and chairs, of course, facilitate discussion groups and committee activities.
6. What kind of reading materials will be needed for core classes? Films and other audiovisual aids? An essential phase of core planning is that of anticipating needs for materials sufficiently well to develop: (a) adequate classroom, central, and audiovisual libraries, and (b) an index to sources of other materials.
7. How will grades be reported, if at all, for the core classes? As "core" or as separate subjects? Separate grades, of course, make it somewhat more difficult for teachers to break down subject lines.
8. How will core work be reported on transcripts for college entrance? Many high schools report the core programs as separate subjects according to emphasis on the traditional subjects replaced by the core.

9. What administrative arrangements will be necessary regarding excursions and field trips?

10. What consultative assistance can be made available to core teachers and core groups? Other teachers, the principal, supervisors, and, particularly, persons in the community who can help because of their experience are frequently called on.

11. What kinds of records and data must be kept in order to provide a basis for evaluating the core curriculum? In addition to records of individual progress, a diarylike record for the total group is helpful.

12. How can parents be kept informed regarding the progress of the core reorganization? members of the faculty not teaching in the core?

ROLE OF THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

Throughout all this planning and particularly in the ongoing core curriculum the individual teacher holds the key to the success of the core curriculum. On his or her shoulders rests the responsibility for testing each plan by application, for guiding youth in their planning, execution, and evaluation, and for constant vigilance in locating and making available reliable sources of information. (See the analysis of teaching presented in Chapter I.) Note the tasks a particular teacher faces as he undertakes the job of teaching a two-hour core class of tenth-grade youngsters in a metropolitan high school. These tasks include:

1. Getting acquainted with each student in the class: his background; physical, mental, and emotional status and capacities; previous educational experiences; interests in school study, leisure-time activities, and future occupations.

2. Guiding group planning in the original listing and analysis of problems for study; in the selection of the first and subsequent problems; in the determination of procedures and sources for learning about each problem.

3. Directing group discussion of such types as reviewing information secured about a problem from books, films, persons, and excursions; considering opposing positions on controversial issues; analyzing relative merits of various action proposals; determining standards of individual and group behavior on an excursion, at an assembly, or at a party; evaluating the success of a committee's investigation.

4. Locating books, pamphlets, magazines, and clippings bearing on some problem being studied, and helping students to locate, use, and evaluate such materials.

5. Making necessary arrangements for assembly programs, field trips, speakers, use of other teachers, and rooms for small groups.

6. Organizing class committees, special visits and field trips by individual students and by groups, panel discussions, open forums, meetings of parents, youth and teachers.

7. Maintaining adequate files on individual students, on units and problems studied, and on community resources and institutions.

8. Studying for the teacher's own information a maximum amount of the sources available.

9. Working with other teachers to insure a minimum undesirable duplication of effort and a desirable continuity of work from year to year, and to maintain an adequate continuing evaluation of the core plan.

Preparing to Teach in the Core Curriculum

Are you challenged to want to teach in the core curriculum, or are you frightened by the complexity of the job, or do you have both reactions? Probably your study of this chapter brings you your first knowledge of core curriculum. Possibly you are the almost exceptional prospective teacher who has had experience as a high school student in core classes, or, even better, perhaps you have observed core classes in schools you have visited. The authors believe that the best preparation you can possibly make for core teaching is to teach in a core plan. If you are interested in the core you should ask for a core class in your student teaching program or in your first school.

School administrators have considerable difficulty in locating core teachers; so you should easily enough find places to teach in core programs. Indeed, one of the authors has had the discouraging experience of asking many new teachers about their interest in core curriculum, only to find that these beginners were completely ignorant of the term. We question, of course, whether any beginning secondary teacher who is uninformed about core curriculum has had adequate preparation for teaching in the modern secondary school, and that is why we include this chapter in our book. However, there are desirable qualifications for core teachers other than a knowledge of the theory of core curriculum, or an interest in teaching core, or even a few months' experience with core in student teaching.

In his discussion, "Teachers for Tomorrow's High School," Caswell describes the following "competencies" needed by the core teacher:

1. The core teacher should be able to sense and help solve the problems faced by individual boys and girls.

2. The core teacher should be able to relate the more common problems and concerns of youth to the larger social setting with its values, problems and achievements.

3. The core teacher should be able to function as a group leader working with his students.

4. The core teacher should be able to relate community conditions and resources to the education of youth.

5. The core teacher should be able to draw upon and use effectively major general resources of scholarship needed to understand and deal with the

more common and persistent personal-social problems and concerns of youth.

6. The core teacher should be able to guide youth in the selection of educational activities which foster continuous all-round development.

7. The core teacher should be able to guide youth in the wise selection of an occupation.[15]

It is unlikely that you have developed all these competencies in the course of your training as a teacher. Indeed, Caswell concludes that "the requirements for teaching the general or core phase of the curriculum are such as to necessitate a separate and distinctive program of teacher education,"[16] and such separate and distinctive programs have as yet to be generally provided. However, secondary schools cannot await improvements until all teacher-training institutions offer such courses. There are specific steps you can take before and in your teaching career that will help you to assume core-teaching responsibilities. In fact, you will become a better teacher of young persons whether in the core or subject curriculum if you make constant effort to learn as much as you can about

1. Young persons: by observing them in school and out, and then analyzing carefully the school's program in the light of their characteristics and needs.

2. Current social problems: their backgrounds, their manifestations, proposals for their solutions, their relation to you.

3. Sources of information, such as reference books, textbooks, magazines, newspapers, films, community resources, radio: how to guide students in the use of these sources.

4. Democratic techniques of group work: by observing democratic leaders; by participating democratically in all groups of which you are a member; by practice as a chairman, leader, and teacher.

Implications for All Teachers

Probably only a minority of secondary teachers-in-training along with you who read this book will ever teach in a core curriculum, unless the secondary school curriculum changes much more rapidly in the next generation than it has in the past. Nevertheless, the authors believe that all teachers should know about the core curriculum, for these reasons:

1. The core curriculum is an approach to overcoming the deficiencies of the traditional curriculum, and it can be adapted to some extent in any high school as teachers are willing and able.

2. Some of its characteristics, as summarized below, may be applied in any teaching situation regardless of the name:

[15] See Hollis L. Caswell, ed., *The American High School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946), pp. 189–197.

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 196.

a. Longer and more flexible instructional periods.—This is an administrative problem to be handled by block scheduling or other procedures discussed earlier in this chapter.
b. Guidance by the teacher.—Every teacher can attempt to get acquainted with and help individual youth.
c. Emphasis on problems of youth rather than organized subjects.—Even in the most traditional subjects teachers can give emphasis to practical problems rather than to abstractions.
d. Use of cooperative planning procedures.—Even in the selection of problems or processes in mathematics, science, and languages this is possible.
e. Use of varied learning experiences.—The core has no monopoly on use of community leaders, field trips, and visual aids, for example.

3. The core curriculum as a theory and as a practice has probably attracted more emphasis in the literature of secondary education than has any innovation of the past decade or more, and all who work in the field will want to be "professionally literate."

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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Fifty-five pupils tell of their experiences through six years (grades seven to twelve) at the University High School; an unusual description of an unusual high school program.

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See Chapter 8, "General Education Works," for descriptions of various school programs possessing some of the characteristics of a core curriculum.

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Michigan Department of Public Instruction, *Planning and Working Together.* Bulletin Number 337; Lansing, Mich.: Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1945.
Suggests procedures for core-curriculum development, including source units, daily schedules, and sample tests, reports, and other materials.

Minneapolis Public Schools, Division of Secondary Education, *A Primer for Common Learnings.* Minneapolis, Minn.: The Schools, May, 1948.
Helpful, brief answers to questions concerning a common-learnings or core curriculum.

Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943.
The schools included in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association describe the experiments that they undertook, and their experiences in curriculum improvement.

Spears, Harold, *The Emerging High School Curriculum.* New York: American Book Company, 1940.
A helpful source book on modern high school curriculum practices, including several chapters describing core-curriculum programs in various schools.

Tyler, Ralph W., "Should Every High School Develop a Core Curriculum?" North Central Association *Quarterly,* 22:301–305 (January), 1948.
See for an affirmative answer to the question posed in the title of the article; made in the light of analysis of the weaknesses of the present curriculum and of the possibilities of the core plan.

XVI WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

What Is a Work-Experience Program?

We may define a work-experience program as an organized effort by the school to provide actual experience in some one or more occupations for its enrollees. Thus the school that sends the senior girls in its commercial department to offices for actual experience two periods a day, or recruits and places baby-sitters and provides a class in child care for them, or maintains a general part-time job placement office and helps students improve in jobs secured through this office has a work experience program. Work experience itself, according to one helpful analysis, "consists of a series of experiences in which needed goods or services are produced."[1]

Almost every high school makes some effort to provide work experience for some enrollees; probably no high school, other than trade or vocational schools, makes any effort to provide work for all enrollees. The authors believe that a defensible program is being developed when the school attempts to assist with work experience as many pupils as cannot engage in profitable experience through their own resources. That is, we consider a work-experience program to have general-education values as well as vocational values and thus not to be of exclusive concern to a select group concerned only with the development of highly specialized skills. Specifically, such values as the following are usually ascribed to work experience for students:

1. Development of desirable attitudes toward work: its importance and social significance. Thus the high school boy who works in a downtown store after school and on Saturdays may be helped by a teacher-supervisor to appreciate the usefulness of his work in helping people make wise selections.

2. Development of appreciations of the role of workers. The high school pupil-clerk also has opportunity to learn firsthand of the jobs done by clerks, managers, buyers, bookkeepers, cashiers, janitors, and delivery boys.

[1] Walter B. Cocking, Ralph B. Dwinnell, and Ormsbee W. Robinson, *Work Experience* (New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, 1945), p. 2.

3. Appreciation of such important traits as regularity, reliability, and cooperation. It is common observation, for example, that students who are almost habitually tardy at school are so motivated by a job to do, and the money they earn for it, that they get to their work on time!

4. Provision of an understanding of proper employer-employee relationships. The labor-management problem is rather abstract for students but takes on considerable meaning when students become apprentices, even under school auspices, in an industry where they work side by side with union men.

5. Development of good work habits and skills. Opportunities to practice even a few hours a week such habits and skills as making change, keeping accurate sales slips, and answering a telephone may be far more effective than talking about these matters in class.

6. Acquisition of information about occupational opportunities and conditions. That is, a preferred way to learn about conditions in a dairy is obviously that of actual working in a dairy, or better, several dairies.

7. Motivation of the educational program. It is a sound learning principle that we learn best when we seek answers to questions that concern us. Students who bring to class questions about jobs they are actually doing outside school have a real motive for learning the information or techniques involved. Students' own appraisals of work experience are reviewed later in this chapter. We may understand the characteristics of these work-experience programs by noting certain responsible educational and social developments, certain sources to which you can turn for further information, and some problems and practices in these programs that illustrate their variety, complexity, and possibilities.

BACKGROUND FACTORS

The need of young persons for work experience is certainly not new, but it is a new development for schools to assume the responsibility for satisfying this need. Before our country became so industrialized young persons had plenty of work to do at home, but with urbanization and electrification the chores at home become lighter, and sometimes nonexistent. Many students in high school have never done work for which they were responsible to, and paid by, an employer. Also, just as industrialization has changed the nature of the home, the range of students in high school has widened. Now the large majority of those attending high school are available for work on graduation, whereas a few decades ago most would have gone on for further training. Furthermore, as the schools have faced the problem of what to do with all students they have also been discovering and practicing new theories of learning. Work experience is a uniquely clear example of learning by doing.

Related to these social and educational changes are certain more specific developments that have given considerable impetus to the theory

and practice of work experience in the secondary schools. First, federal aid to vocational education has characteristically required practical or project work. As we noted earlier, every student in a vocational agriculture class must have his projects—land, animals, and so forth.

Even more closely related to the present work-experience plan is the distributive-education program first authorized in 1936 by the George-Deen Act. In this program students who are enrolled in retail-selling and office-work courses spend a part of the school day in private employment, to which their vocational classes are related and in which they are supervised by coordinators of distributive education. These students may have general courses (English, social studies, mathematics, for example) in the morning and a class in office practice or retailing in the early afternoon, and spend the remainder—perhaps a third—of the school day working in a downtown store or office. A teacher-coordinator visits them on the job and, by means of observation and conference with employers, determines needs for study and improvement. The pattern of this work has also been followed in various work-experience programs not participating in federal aid.

Secondly, various educational studies during the past decade or so have almost dramatically emphasized young persons' need for vocational education and have proposed various types of cooperative work programs. Perhaps the most significant of these studies were those carried on by the American Youth Commission, whose final report, *Youth and the Future,* contained the following recommendation:

> . . . . In many cases and not only for financial reasons, pupils in the upper years of high school and junior colleges should divide their time equally between school attendance and wage employment. Half-time work in private employment, with half-time devoted to instruction in the schools, would be an especially appropriate type of program for the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades.[2]

In the third place, the depression of the 1930's created federal legislation designed to give financial assistance to youth in school (and out) by means of work projects. As has already been stated in Chapter V, the National Youth Administration gave part-time employment to hundreds of thousands of high school and college students from 1935 to 1943. Schools became accustomed to having many school jobs done by students rather than adults, and after dissolution of the National Youth Administration, some schools continued to have similar jobs done by students. There was considerable difference of opinion regarding the National Youth Administration program, a great deal of which, however, was due to the criticism of the federal administration of the program.

[2] American Youth Commision, *Youth and the Future* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942), p. 124.

In the fourth place, the war brought a real need and opportunity for work experience. The grave man-power shortage produced accelerated schedules in high schools, and many students attended school four hours and worked four (or more) hours a day. Apprenticeship-training programs, with vocational departments giving related courses and supervision, were expanded for war training and later for the education of veterans. Also, during the war many schools that did not accelerate or expand their vocational facilities organized High School Victory Corps under the auspices of the United States Office of Education; these gave students experience in such varied school and community activities involved in the war effort as collection of paper and scrap, rationing of goods, production of crops, maintenance of home gardens, assistance in war industries, and care of children of mothers employed in war industry. Since the war many schools have tried to maintain work-experience programs or develop new programs that will give students experiences similar to those they received during the war.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

A teacher or faculty interested in expanding its program for work experience may find considerable help in several publications analyzing or describing this type of program. Perhaps you will wish to read some of these now; in any event, you should know about them so that you will have references to turn to when you do visit or work in a school having or studying a work-experience program.

Several *Bulletins* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals have been devoted to work experience: April, 1940; May, 1941; and January, 1943. Other issues also have carried, and will probably continue to carry, related articles. A Harvard University Workshop bulletin, *Work Experience in Education,* by Warren C. Seyfert and Paul A. Rehmus, analyzes the underlying issues involved and includes a check list for evaluating work experience.

Paul R. Pierce's account, *Developing a High School Curriculum* (American Book Company, 1942), about Wells High School, Chicago, contains an interesting chapter (IX) describing the Wells program. Pierce considers work experience a part of general education: "Proper attitudes toward, and practical experience in, work should form an essential element of American secondary education."[3]

The same point of view toward work experience characterizes an excellent review by Paul B. Jacobson of various programs in Chapter 11 of the North Central Association's *General Education in the American High School.* Here are described practices at Sedan, Kansas; Clayton, New Mexico; Brevard, North Carolina; Salina, Pennsylvania; DeForest,

[3] Paul R. Pierce, *Developing a High School Curriculum* (New York: American Book Company, 1942), p. 318.

Wisconsin; Springfield, Illinois; Framingham, Massachusetts; Welds, Texas; Chicago, Illinois; and Rochester, Minnesota. Most of these projects were subsidized by the National Youth Administration. Jacobson is also author of a chapter (5) on work experience in the 1944 Yearbook of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, entitled *Toward a New Curriculum.* Here he reviews work-experience programs in Oakland, California; Hamden, Connecticut; Turtle Lake, North Dakota; and Seattle, Washington.

An important account of wartime work-experience programs in eleven cities was published in 1946 by the National Child Labor Committee under the title *Work Experience in Secondary Education;* it is abstracted in an article, "Wartime Work Experience Programs," by Paul E. Elicker in the October, 1946, issue of the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

A 1947 bulletin (No. 9) of the Office of Education, *School-and-Work Programs,* reviews experiences of 136 school systems in school-and-work programs. This study was conducted by the Office of Education and the Children's Bureau in 1945 and was, of course, greatly influenced by wartime practices. The bulletin already cited on *Work Experience* by Cocking and others answers many questions concerning the philosophy and characteristics of work experience.

These various sources describe quite diverse practices in regard to fairly common problems of purpose, administration, and curriculum. We may understand the entire movement better if we analyze some of these problems here.

Problems and Practices in Work-Experience Programs

WHAT ARE THE PURPOSES OF WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS?

Examination of work-experience programs in operation indicates a number of purposes, more than one of which may be determining the nature of a particular program. Probably the earliest determinant was the vocational aim of improving training by means of cooperative training programs. Thus the United States Office of Education study of *School-and-Work Programs* cited earlier revealed that a major purpose of work experience from the point of view of the students was "to pave the way for a full-time job later on."[4] The "co-op" plan has been widely used in vocational and trade schools and especially in the vocational divisions of colleges and universities, to give young persons experience in the occupations for which they are being trained, as well as to achieve some of the collateral values cited earlier in this chapter. By means of various

[4] Caroline E. Legg, Carl A. Jessen, and Maris M. Proffitt, *School-and-Work Programs* (United States Office of Education Bulletin, 1947, No. 9; Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947), p. 6.

types of alternation schedules students are given alternative periods of instruction and practice. This purpose of training for specific jobs can be considered the dominant aim in the federally aided vocational programs that require work experience in the occupations for which training is aided.

In contrast to the aim of specific vocational training is that of providing varied work experience to give a general orientation to occupations and occupational problems and conditions. Thus programs may be developed that provide for work in the school and community for a large number of students. Perhaps there is less emphasis on occupational skills and more on the service aspects of work. In such programs students may engage in several different types of work in their school careers.

A perhaps unfortunate but nevertheless common purpose of work programs is that of curriculum adjustment for the so-called nonacademic pupil. Thus the study of *School-and-Work Programs* stated that a major purpose of these programs from the point of view of school officials was "to help unadjusted students," and reported that

> . . . . Not infrequently part-time work provided a wholesome emotional outlet for certain unadjusted pupils. Instances were cited in several places of better scholarship and much improved personalities when unstable or dissatisfied boys and girls were allowed to take on as part of their school-supervised program some job carefully selected by the school counselor.[5]

Programs that deliberately aim to provide out-of-school work for students who do not succeed in academic courses seem to assume that (1) the academic courses cannot be revised for these students and (2) students who do succeed in academic work do not need work experience. Actually, neither assumption is valid, since academic courses can be and are being revised and since the values of work experience are of general significance. Many educators believe that work experience is more valuable to many, if not all, students than some of the traditional high school courses. The curriculum-adjustment type of work experience is to be found in schools where students are guided into vocational courses on the basis of failure elsewhere or where work in the cafeteria, repair shop, and so forth, is substituted for academic courses.

Financial aid was the primary aim of National Youth Administration work experience, and, of course, is the major reason for the part-time jobs that many students find for themselves regardless of the existence of school-organized work-experience programs. The work-experience program in some schools consists of supplying student assistantships to persons who probably could not stay in school without financial aid, and in others of matching part-time, out-of-school jobs with students who need

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

such jobs. Although this purpose and these programs seem wholly sound, it is unfortunate for the less needy if they are not given consideration.

This last purpose frequently operates jointly with that of school and community service. That is, ingenious school leadership in many communities has identified various types of service needed within the school and the community. Students who especially need financial assistance may be guided into the renumerative projects, if there are such, and those whose means are less limited, into the projects where service is the only motive. Here, of course, service and work experience become almost inseparable purposes of the same activity.

Finally, the dominant purpose of the wartime work-experience programs was to relieve a man-power shortage. Entire schools were placed on abbreviated schedules to make available the productive labor of high school students. If some of these communities had not had such schedules many students would have dropped out of school altogether. In these and other communities, apprenticeship and "co-op" programs were expanded and accelerated to accommodate the needs of war plants. Although this purpose, considered on its own merits, and without reference to various incidental accomplishments of these programs, certainly justified the school adjustments involved, such programs would not provide for a permanent inclusion of work experience in the curriculum. If organized work experience is valuable for young persons in wartime, it should be valuable at all times. The man-power purpose has long been the reason, of course, for broken schedules in rural communities, where schools close during harvest periods to permit seasonal work on the part of all enrollees. However, both this program and the wartime programs may be neither organized nor supervised by the school, and in such an event any general educational aims and relationships are likely to be incidental and questionable.

WHO SHALL HAVE WORK EXPERIENCE IN SCHOOL?

The purpose of the work-experience program logically determines which students will participate. That is, if the purpose is vocational training, only students selecting the occupations involved will have work experience; or if the controlling purpose is general education, a maximum number, ideally all, will be involved; or if financial aid, only students in financial need. Actually, however, the problem is more complex. Students may elect a course in distributive occupations because they wish the part-time earnings, not the training, involved, or many who will never attend college may elect a college-preparatory course because they dislike work or because their parents do not think high school students should work; or youth who desperately need financial aid may, because they find part-time jobs while in high school inadequate or inconvenient, elect to leave school for full-time employment.

A further complicating factor may be legal restrictions created by the attitude of organized labor and other groups. The selection of students for work-experience programs has to be planned in accordance with such factors as the terminal age for compulsory attendance, the minimum age at which workers are entitled to compensation insurance if injured at work, laws concerning liability of the schools and minimum wages, and employment conditions.

The last-mentioned factor is of particular importance in initiating a work-experience program, for every school will have some students who are already engaged in part-time work after school, on Saturdays, and during vacations. For example, a survey of student employment in the Washington, D. C., schools in 1944–1945 disclosed that 22.1 per cent of all junior high school students were gainfully employed, 33.7 per cent of all senior high school students, and 48 per cent of all vocational high school students.[6] Although these statistics reflected wartime employment, even in normal times work experience, at least of an unorganized kind, is common. How to incorporate these jobs into the organized school program, how to help youth and employers improve work experience, how to eliminate socially undesirable occupations and especially how to gain maximum educational values from part-time work are perplexing problems for the school.

The final answer to our question regarding who is to have work experience must be reached for each school on the basis of all these related questions. Schools that are realistically concerned with work-experience programs and have essential funds and personnel to operate them, employ varied techniques of guidance to insure that youth receive maximum value from their work. In such schools, students are wisely counseled as to whether they should engage in work experience, carefully guided into appropriate opportunities, and adequately supervised on the job. In other schools, lack of funds, staff, leadership, or philosophy makes the selection and assignment of students to work experience a highly opportunistic matter. In such schools, little credit can be taken by the school organization for whatever values students may secure from their experience.

WHAT CURRICULUM ADAPTATIONS ARE MADE FOR WORK EXPERIENCE?

In the schools you visit where work experiences are common but wholly unorganized you will find no deliberate effort to incorporate these experiences into the curriculum or otherwise to adapt the program. Students who have "work permits," if required, or other types of necessary certification may be excused from some period or periods of the school

[6] Mildred S. Percy, "Census of High School Workers," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 138, **30**:70 (April), 1946.

day because of their jobs, or teachers may make some adjustments in course requirements for these students.

In marked contrast to this situation is that prevailing with respect to the work-experience programs operating in connection with federally subsidized vocational training programs. Students enrolled in vocational agriculture, home economics, distributive education, or apprenticeship programs have definite schedules for their work in and out of school. Appropriate credit is given for work experience as a part of the vocational training course. Instruction in the skills required on the job is given in the school's training programs, and youth's performance on the job is followed carefully as a basis for determining and giving further instruction as necessary. Thus students enrolled in retailing courses spend a considerable portion of their time in actual sales work in downtown stores, and their class discussions are concerned with problems encountered.

Varying practices exist in schools that have organized work experience for students other than those enrolled in the vocational programs. As we shall see further in Chapters XVIII and XIX, work experience of a service nature is frequently conducted on a class basis, and class discussion and training in skills are closely related to the work projects. The following suggestions, "How Work Experience Is Used in School Experience," are cited from a Philadelphia junior high school in *School-and-Work Programs:*

1. Class work is planned to supply those knowledges which workers need.
2. Pupils describe their work to others in the class. Thus, they become familiar with many types of work.
3. Pupils are encouraged to discuss, in class, problems which they meet on the job. All join in making suggestions to solve the problem.
4. Pupils are encouraged to join in discussions by citing examples of things which they have observed in their own places of employment.
5. Pupils make up arithmetic problems of the type they need to perform at work.
6. When unfavorable reports are received from employers concerning some pupil, we try to find the reason and through conferences with the pupil try to bring about an improvement.
7. Oral and written compositions are based upon work experience. For example, several pupils have written a play dealing with a work situation, which they plan to prepare to present in assembly.[7]

Student assistantships may be in lieu of or a part of certain courses (work in the cafeteria, for example, may receive credit in home economics), and credit is given in these courses for the work. The United States Office of Education study showed that less than half of the seventy-five schools and school systems responding to a question regarding the granting of credit allowed credit for work experience. Fields in which ex-

[7] Legg, Jessen, and Proffitt, *op. cit.*, pp. 36–37.

perience might be granted credit were frequently limited. For example, one school granted credit for related work experience in the fields of agriculture, commercial studies, home economics, physical education, prenursing, and industrial arts, and in this school work experience was related to instruction in agriculture, typewriting, stenography, accounting, office training, office machines, homemaking, foods, physical education, hygiene, home nursing, biology, chemistry, mechanical drawing, welding, metal work, automobile mechanics, electric shop, and wood shop.

Brockman's study of cooperative work-experience education in forty-five secondary schools revealed that thirty-five (83 per cent) of these schools gave credit for the work experience, the most common plan being that of allowing one credit (one-half unit) a semester for fifteen hours a week.[8] The study of the "four-four" wartime work-experience programs in eleven communities, made by the National Child Labor Committee, revealed that from 15 to 25 per cent of the total number of credits required for graduation might be given for work experience as such or in the particular fields in which the work was done. [9]

In the more unorganized programs much less liberal provisions govern scheduling, credit, and related training. The starting point in these programs must frequently be that of matching youth and jobs, and general policies governing such problems are difficult. Students will usually have their work experience outside school or at least outside the four subjects typically required each year, although schedule adjustments may be made for individual youth. Credit for work experience will be given only provided that the experience is in connection with some organized subject. Discussion of the experience and help at school with the skills and understandings needed on the job are also usually confined to experiences in connection with some organized subject. Provisions for work experience to be scheduled during the school day and to be given graduation credit as such must, of course, be made possible by encouragement from regulatory and accrediting agencies. Without such encouragement and provision, students who are helped by the school to have work opportunities must carry these opportunities as an extracurricular load.

WHAT TYPES OF WORK EXPERIENCE ARE PROVIDED?

The strictly vocational type of work experience includes supervised part-time work in agriculture, retail selling, office work, and in the various industries and trades (such as printing, machines, electricity,

[8] L. O. Brockman, "Inauguration and Development of Co-operative Work Experience Education in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 135, **30**:42 (January), 1946.

[9] See Paul E. Elicker, "Wartime Work Experience Programs," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 140, **30**:20 (October), 1946.

and welding), for which training is typically offered in trade and vocational schools. A wide range of other types of work experiences may be organized by schools for general educational purposes. Study of the accounts of work-experience programs described in the sources mentioned and of practices in various other schools suggests the opportunities listed below.

Opportunities for Work Experience

IN SCHOOL

Making and selling dolls, costumes
Service in cafeteria, lunchroom
Apprenticeship in school beauty shop
Apprenticeship in school repair shop
Apprenticeship in school garage
Assistants to teachers and others
Beautifying buildings and grounds
Acting as messengers
Operating duplicating and other office machines
Managing school activities
Producing scenery, posters, forms
Caring for children (See Plate 26)
Operating motion-picture machines
Maintaining gardens and nurseries
Acting as janitors
Constructing facilities and equipment
Conducting recreational programs for younger children
Operating food canneries
Operating bookstores, selling candy bars
Supervising traffic in buildings and on the street
Operating placement service for seasonal help
Operating a school farm
Conducting fashion shows
Assisting in the library
Operating school switchboards

OUT OF SCHOOL

Apprenticeship in beauty shops
Service in restaurants, hotels
Apprenticeship in service stations and garages
Store clerks, stock boys
Assistants to doctors, dentists, lawyers
Carrying on clean-up programs
Selling newspapers
Writing for newspapers
Apprenticeship at dairies
Soliciting for community service agencies
Distributing and collecting materials
Managing canteens, bowling alleys, and the like
"Sitting" with children
Cleaning cars, yards, houses, business places
Seasonal harvesting
Assisting in summer camps
Messenger service
Making home gardens
Surveying community occupations, recreation, housing, and so forth
Assisting in public and circulating libraries
Varied farm duties
Constructing homes
Operating dairy service
Assisting in reforesting projects
Apprenticeship in carpentry, electricity, printing
Chauffeuring
Various types of office work
Theater ushers

Many of these opportunities are possible in both rural and urban schools. A mere listing of work experiences possible within the school

itself in the Harvard bulletin on *Work Experience in Education* runs eight and one-half printed pages and includes the following types of work:

1. Construction, repair, and remodeling of buildings
2. Construction, repair, and remodeling of public facilities
3. Construction, repair, and remodeling of equipment
4. Improvement and maintenance of grounds
5. Building maintenance
6. Clerical assistance service
7. Library service and book repair
8. Duplicating work
9. Departmental services
   a. Physical education
   b. Shops
   c. English
   d. Social studies
   e. Mathematics
   f. Cafeteria and home economics
   g. Medical studies—health and hospital
   h. Arts, crafts, and music
   i. Chemistry
   j. Biology
   k. Physics
   l. Commercial studies
   m. Agricultural studies
   n. Guidance
10. Research, statistics, and survey
11. Elementary school services
12. General school services

Actually, there are as many types of work opportunities available to students of a particular school as there are jobs in the school and community that can utilize the services of young persons, with either full or apprentice responsibilities and without specific training. It is important, however, that several principles be considered in arrangements for work experience:

1. The job should have enough variety to permit the development of several skills.
2. The job should be socially desirable.
3. The job should not replace available adult labor.
4. The job should be appropriate to the maturity of high school students.

HOW IS WORK EXPERIENCE SUPERVISED BY THE SCHOOL?

Here again there is a range of practice varying from no supervision—indeed no knowledge—of the unorganized employment of

students to the careful supervision required of school coordinators in the federally supported vocational training programs. Even in the wartime four-four programs, the number of students for each supervisor in the eleven cities studied by the National Child Labor Committee was found to range from twenty-five to several hundred.[10] In the schools studied by

PLATE 26

EXPERIENCE IN CHILD CARE. Junior high school girls take care of young children during a program for parents. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

Brockman, about 82 per cent employed coordinators, but the amount of supervision varied from one school that checked a student's work five times a week to one that checked each student once each quarter.[11]

The administrative arrangements for supervision vary widely: one or more full-time coordinators may be employed; the work may be assigned to the department heads involved or to counselors; the principal or vice-principal may do the supervision in small schools, or certain teachers may be assigned work supervision as a part of their teaching load. In schools where work experience is largely of an informal and unorganized type, no person is assigned responsibility, and any supervision that exists is done by the teacher, who more or less on his own attempts to make educational

[10] *Ibid,* p. 19.
[11] See Brockman, *op. cit.,* pp. 50–51.

use of the work experiences the students are having. One point, however, is very clear: unless the school supervises work experiences, there is likely to be little or no relationship between what students do in school and on the job. Supervision of work experience seems as essential in the school's program as the employment of teachers for classrooms, coaches for athletics, librarians for libraries, and all other personnel who guide boys and girls in school-sponsored activities.

Work-Experience Programs and the Needs of Youth

NEED FOR SALABLE SKILLS

Work experience is most closely related to the first of the ten imperative educational needs, because this need is for "supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations." This need for help in the ultimate making of a living has been validated by many studies of the needs of young persons; for example, Bell's survey of Maryland students revealed that 66.6 per cent of those studied stated that "economic security" was their "most perplexing personal problem."[12] We should recall, too, that some 85 per cent of high school pupils do not go on for further training, that only about half of those who enter school finish high school, and that the majority of students take jobs that require little or no training, prior to employment, in specific skills. Therefore the chief conclusion to be reached with respect to the relation of work experience to the needs of youth is that the present programs in secondary schools fall far short of the existing needs.

The need of knowledge of occupations, general characteristics of good workers, and specific information in a chosen occupational field is common to all young persons. The real choice for the secondary school is whether this need can be met best by classroom instruction in traditional subjects, or by firsthand observation and experience, or by a combination of these approaches. As we look at the secondary school critically we see that the first approach has been generally and extensively made, except for those students who have taken some of the subjects in specialized fields. That is, most high school students have learned all they know (as a result of school experience) about occupations through such attention as they may be given in social studies or English or other subjects. Although these subjects can undoubtedly contribute to understandings of economic life, emphasis is too infrequently on this purpose. Hence many or most students have little information regarding available occupations, qualifications of a successful worker, and their own skills in one or more occupations.

In the authors' judgment, an adequate work-experience program for

[12] Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 250.

any high school should have the following features if the need for salable skills is approached:

1. Sufficient jobs so that all students will have experience in at least one, and preferably several, occupations in which the experience approximates that of the adult worker.
2. Guidance of sufficient scope and intensity to assure that each student will be given experience appropriate to his physical and mental qualifications and to his previous experiences and present interests.
3. Study of enough occupations by observation, reading and movies and discussion, and actual experience to insure every student some basis for making an intelligent decision regarding occupations after he leaves high school.
4. Sufficient supervision to give every student help in acquiring skills, in making growth from one skill or process to another, in developing good habits of work, and in making needed adjustments from one type of work to another.
5. Records that are accurate and sufficiently detailed to serve as bases for evaluating performance, for determining fields of competence, and for recommendations to prospective employers.

A school having a work-experience program with these features would obviously be making an all-out effort to satisfy the economic needs of its students. Few, if any, schools have such programs. Possible steps in their development are summarized later in this chapter.

OTHER IMPERATIVE NEEDS

The check list of the imperative educational needs (see Chapter XII), indicated that work-experience programs have potential contributions for several needs in addition to the economic one. Experience in work projects can assist as greatly in developing the various skills of group work essential in citizenship as can experiences in any other organized group activity. Many types of work experience are informative on consumer problems, since the salesman, clerk, or producer must become acquainted with consumer costs and other problems in buying and selling. Understanding and use of the scientific method may be advanced, since experience in work as elsewhere is the basis for scientific thinking. Cooperation, respect for others, and ethical values may be developed through work with, as well as study of, other persons. Moreover, since clear and effective thinking and communication are the most common skills needed by workers and demanded by employers, growth in these skills can be a major purpose of work experience.

STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF WORK EXPERIENCE

Most of the studies of work experience cited earlier in this chapter include sections dealing with the values or advantages of work

experience. Here, however, we wish to call particular attention to some of the evidence of students' own evaluation of their experience.

The United States Office of Education study, *School-and-Work Programs*, in 136 school systems reported four major reasons that students gave for participation in these programs:

1. To render a patriotic service. (This study was heavily influenced by wartime training programs.)
2. To earn money.
3. To substitute employment for study during part of the school day.
4. To pave the way for a full-time job later on.[13]

A survey of a sample of 140 junior high school pupils participating in work-experience projects in New York City showed that these pupils cited as most common learnings, in order of frequency:

Punctuality and regularity
Honesty
How to work with people
Manners
Personal appearance
How to follow directions
How to meet people[14]

Another appraisal of work experience by pupils in New York City gave somewhat similar returns, the most frequent value cited being that of "the ability to understand and to work with people of various backgrounds and age groups."[15]

Other surveys indicate considerable numbers of students who do and do not feel that they would wish to continue after high school in the kind of work they are doing part-time; the surveys suggest that the experience is helping students develop likes and dislikes for particular kinds of work. Analysis of all such studies suggests that the students consider the following *the* major values of their work experience:

1. Earnings
2. Work habits and skills
3. Social development
4. Help in occupational choice

Extending and Improving Work-Experience Programs

If students need, and if secondary schools now generally fail to provide, organized programs of work experience, it is clear that a major problem of secondary education is to extend and improve such pro-

[13] Legg and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 5–6.

[14] Abraham Ehrenfeld, "The Young Worker and His School Life," *High Points*, **29**:18–24 (September), 1947.

[15] Marguerite C. Kelley, "Pupils Appraise the Work Experience Program," *High Points*, **29**:42–52 (September), 1945.

grams. Since it is unlikely that you will start teaching in a school that has a well-developed work-experience program, you may well question why you should be concerned with this problem. We believe that every teacher should be concerned because (1) the work-experience movement seems likely to affect an increasing number of secondary schools, in one of which you may teach, and (2) your leadership may be the beginning of a work-experience program in your school. The way in which such a program will be put into effect in a particular school will depend on many school and community factors, but several steps are likely to be involved.

SECURING FACULTY AND PUBLIC COOPERATION

A potential starting point for organized work experience probably exists in every school and community. Is there dissatisfaction with the academic nature of the high school curriculum? Are employers critical of high school graduates? Does organized labor want an improved program of vocational education? Is there an excessive amount of school drop-outs for economic reasons? Is there a labor shortage? Any one of these problems may provide the basis in your school and community for studying the possibilities of a work-experience program. In such a study faculty and lay groups will be concerned about the values of work experience, the types of work available, the problem of credits and schedule, and so forth. Such problems may be, and have been, successfully attacked by joint school-community groups. *Education for All American Youth* reports that mythical American City had an advisory committee on vocational education representing employers, employees' organizations, and the schools without whose assistance "it is doubtful that work experience on a large scale would have been possible."[16]

If work-experience programs are to succeed, both school and community workers have a real adjustment to make in their thinking about the functions of secondary education. Evidence will be needed as to the number of students who go to work and to college after high school, the inadequacies of the subject curriculum for occupational training, and the students' own interests in work experience. Compromises may be anticipated with regard to the types of work experience considered acceptable, the matters of schedule and credits, and other problems. Yet when teachers and citizens come to see that even a limited amount of work experience has a rightful place in the school curriculum, a beginning may be made.

ORGANIZING EXISTING WORK EXPERIENCE

One of the first steps taken by schools concerned about work experience is to find out what work youngsters in school are already doing

[16] Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944), p. 306.

and what interests may exist in further work programs. Obviously work experience cannot be brought into the schools' curriculum until there is an inventory available of the work being done. This inventory would usually determine such facts as these for each student who has any type of employment: (1) nature of the job, (2) schedule of work, (3) renumeration, (4) why the student has this employment, (5) working conditions, and (6) relation to the school's program of studies and activities. Sample survey forms used in the Battle Creek, Michigan, schools to determine work being done or desired are shown in Figure 7.

With information of this type, the school staff can proceed with efforts to guide employed students into related training or into better employment, to relate instruction to the employment held by the student, to give individual students help with problems created by their employment, and perhaps to organize those engaged in the same kind of work for discussion of problems in the occupation. Also, such a survey provides a beginning point for study of problems of schedule, credit, and supervision, and it may even help to secure added funds necessary for employing an adequate number of counselors and work supervisors.

UTILIZING SCHOOL OPPORTUNITIES

As already pointed out, the work-experience program was given considerable impetus by National Youth Administration aid for various types of work in school. A school just beginning some type of organized work program might determine which of the projects earlier supported by National Youth Administration aid might be continued with school funds or without renumeration to youth; or the school might review carefully all schools needs to determine what kind or work could profitably be done by students. In some schools such a survey has been conducted jointly by students and faculty, and joint planning of the jobs identified has followed. In every school there are a considerable number of jobs that have not existed because of a lack of paid personnel, or a lack of planning, or a failure on everyone's part to recognize needs.

Having identified needed jobs, several questions must be answered: Are there students interested in jobs of an individual nature? If so, what pay or other recognition can be given them? What jobs can be done on a group basis? When can the work be done, and how can time from the daily program be released? Who will supervise the work? How can each job be made to have educational values, including relationships to possible future occupations? You might check the jobs you have seen students do in high school against these questions. If the answers are negative, what shortcomings existed and how should they have been removed?

UTILIZING COMMUNITY OPPORTUNITIES

Any work-experience program that is limited to work in school will be narrow and inadequate, although this may be a fine begin-

BATTLE CREEK PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Division of Instruction

Date .....

Work Experience Survey

QUESTIONNAIRE NO. 1

To be distributed to students now working away from home.

Name ..... Address .....

Age ..... Date of birth ..... Grade ..... School now attending .....

1. Where do you work? .....
2. What types of things do you do? .....
3. Number of hours you work each day:
   Sun. ..... Mon. ..... Tues. ..... Wed. ..... Thurs. ..... Fri. ..... Sat. .....
4. Total hours for the week ..... Hourly rate ..... Average total weekly pay .....
5. What time do you start work each day? .....
6. What time do you quit work each day? .....
7. What classes in school especially help you with your work? .....
   .....
8. What other kind of help could school give you? .....
9. Do you wish to continue in this type of work after graduation? .....
10. If not, what type of work do you plan to do? .....
11. Is your work a part of the cooperative program under which you receive school credit for work experience? Yes.... No....

Answer the next two questions if your answer to No. 11 above is no.

12. Are you interested in a school program whereby you would attend school part time and work part time receiving school credit for your work experience? Yes..... No.....
13. List below the kinds of work you are interested in if your answer to No. 12 above is yes.

QUESTIONNAIRE NO 2

To be distributed to students not now working away from home.

Name ..... Address .....

Age ..... Date of birth ..... Grade ..... School now attending .....

1. Would you like to work in addition to attending school? Yes ( ). No ( ).
   Answer questions 2, 3, and 4 below if your answer to the above question is yes.
2. Are you interested in a school program whereby you would attend school part time and work part time receiving school credit for your work experience? Yes ( ). No. ( ).
3. Are you interested in working in addition to your school program but receiving no school credit for your work experience? Yes ( ). No ( ).
4. What kinds of work would you be interested in? List below.

FIG. 7. SAMPLE SURVEY FORMS—WORK EXPERIENCE. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

ning. A complete program will include a maximum number of work activities in the community. Many schools or other community agencies will already have on hand occupational surveys and other information regarding work possibilities. Others will need to conduct surveys—a useful work experience in itself—to determine what jobs may be available for high school students, the hours of work, the rate of pay, the qualifications desired, and so forth.

There are really two kinds of community opportunities: (1) community-service projects or jobs for groups or individual youngsters and (2) jobs for which pay is available. Although work experience is involved in both, we shall consider the first activity more carefully in Chapter XIX. Here we should note that an inventory of job opportunities is only a first step, to be followed most painstakingly by investigation of legal and extralegal restrictions, of the school adjustments necessary, and of availability of students to match the jobs. In these studies such a group as American City's advisory committee on vocational education may be of assistance in eliminating work opportunities that are inappropriate for students, or those not permitted by law or accepted by labor, or those in which youth will be exploited. It is at this point, too, that parent cooperation is particularly important, since parental opposition to participation of young persons in a particular project could greatly restrict any positive values.

RELATING CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION AND WORK EXPERIENCE

It is difficult to relate instruction in many of the traditional subjects to the work experience of students. However, English teachers can plan to have letters and reports written by students in relation to their particular jobs, or to have speaking and conversation directed at students' learning about the work experiences of their fellows. An example of a unit in English of general concern to young persons engaged in many types of work experience is reported by Pierce from the Wells High School course:

LANGUAGE ARTS AS A FACTOR IN EARNING A LIVING

Primary Objective:

To recognize and practice phases of English related to business needs of everybody.

Unit Elements:

Attitudes of courtesy and service in business affairs
Discriminant reading of "want ads" for workers
Use of reliable sources respecting business trends
Conducting an effective telephone conversation
Writing a letter requesting an interview
The purchase of a stock article
Writing an order or a request for merchandise

Intelligent reading of business sections of newspapers
Ability to meet patrons and discuss their needs courteously
Elimination of common or "slang" expressions
Correction of speech defects to improve vocational opportunities[17]

Pierce also reports a suggestive unit on "Business Training and Vocational Planning" from the ninth-grade social-studies course.

BUSINESS TRAINING AND VOCATIONAL PLANNING

Primary Objective:

To develop appropriate attitudes toward work and to understand the need for educational and vocational planning.

Unit Elements:

- Wholesome attitudes toward work
- Necessity of a worthy occupation for well-being of group and individual
- Selection versus chance for securing most satisfactory vocation
- Opportunities for work in Chicago
- Essentials in choosing a vocation, such as union requirements, hours, wages, advancement, and physical conditions
- Characteristics of a desirable position
- Determination of individual fitness for a particular position by self-analysis of character traits, interests, training, special aptitudes, personality, and experience
- Opportunities for preparation for vocation
  - Opportunities offered at Wells for such training
  - Analysis of other means of securing required training as to cost, accessibility, and time required
- Securing a position
  - Finding vacancies through employment agencies, friends, want ads
  - Making applications for positions—personal, written[18]

Similar units might easily be developed within English and social-studies classes at other grade levels or within core-curriculum plans.

Courses that directly relate to specific occupations, such as the federally supported vocational courses, ordinarily build most of their classroom program on the work experiences of enrollees. Homerooms and other group-guidance arrangements offer opportunity for discussion of problems in work. Seminars or discussion groups of students engaged in related jobs can be organized. Students whose outside work is baby-sitting, for example, might profit a great deal from a series of conferences with the home-economics teacher; or, since many or most of these students will be taking home economics, the home-economics teacher may build units in child care around their experiences and problems. Students who work part time in service stations and garages would find profitable a series of

[17] Pierce, *op. cit.*, p. 293.
[18] *Ibid*, p. 296.

lectures, discussions, or demonstrations by the auto mechanics instructor. Those who serve as clerks and salesmen in stores may be able to get real help from the commercial department.

PROVIDING ESSENTIAL GUIDANCE AND SUPERVISION

The lack of funds and the under staffing of secondary schools make perhaps the most difficult of all work-experience problems that of providing adequate guidance and supervision. Yet without these aids a work-experience program may have little educational significance. Schools may find various means of providing these services without necessitating increases in personnel that are too expensive, although eventually expansions are essential. If work experience is given credit it replaces classwork, and teachers are freed for guidance and supervision. If employers have acceptable standards and philosophies, they may provide most of the supervision. Student assistants may secure experience as teachers while teachers engage in conferences with student workers and visit students at work. Ideally, however, every school will provide specialized personnel to carry on occupational guidance, and to serve as coordinators of school and work experiences. According to Jacobson's studies, about one hour of a teacher's time is necessary for each thirty students furnished work experience. [19]

Although such a standard may provide a reasonably sound experimental basis, each school in the final analysis will have to determine, in the light of employment conditions, financial status, and help available in the places of work, the amount of guidance and supervision required in its program. Teachers helping to plan a work-experience program should insist that the program go no faster than adequate guidance and supervisory services can be provided.

MAKING NECESSARY ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS

In American City, the faculty was reported to have decided that "since work is considered necessary for practically all our students and since some of this work must be done during the hours of the traditional school day, we will change the hours of the school day to make it possible for all students to enjoy the same educational advantages." [20] Such an ideal solution could be made, we fear, only in such an imaginary city! Lengthening the school day from 8:00 A.M. to 10:00 P.M. would be impossible in school systems unless staggered faculty shifts could be arranged, and this would ordinarily be expensive. Additional time given teachers for guidance and supervision might be scheduled to permit late afternoon classes, and teachers might work morning and evening or afternoon and evening. As in American City, students employed during the

[19] Jacobson, *op. cit.*, p. 287.
[20] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 328.

school day might take some classes in the evening in the regular adult program. Also, as in American City, extension of the school term to twelve months may make it possible for students to have both work experience and a full program of studies.

The first administrative problem, however, may be that of credit. If graduation credit is given for work experience, then it is unnecessary for students to take the usual four units, although they may wish to spend an equivalent amount of time in school. The traditional respectability of various subjects, the force of college entrance and accrediting requirements, and teacher and lay faith in the credit system make the giving of graduation credit for work a delicate matter. Nevertheless, as we have already described, credit has customarily been given for work in various vocational programs, and some schools are finding other ways of liberalization. Probably the most successful procedure here is to liberalize gradually, although as rapidly as possible, the range of activities for which credit is given, securing understanding by teachers and parents at each step.

Other administrative problems that must be met in building work-experience programs center around necessary funds for personnel and facilities; maintenance and extension of cooperative planning with employers; relations with organized labor and with employment agencies; provision of effective programs of interpretation to the public, to colleges, and to regulatory and accrediting agencies; and the organization of necessary related programs of record keeping, placement, and follow-up of students.

ROLE OF THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

What can you as an individual teacher do to prepare yourself either before or after you start teaching to participate effectively in a work-experience program? If you are to teach a vocational subject, your preservice education will undoubtedly assure your preparation for teaching needed skills and for supervising students at work. If you are to be a teacher of general-education subjects, here are some suggestions that may help you:

1. Take an experimental attitude toward work experience, as well as toward any other curriculum element. That is, be willing to experiment, to study the facts, to modify your work in the light of the facts. Study the materials available on work-experience programs in your and other schools.

2. Learn as much as you can through reading, observation, and experience, of the occupations in your and other communities, and learn sources from which you may secure further information.

3. Evaluate your teaching frequently in the light of the economic needs of youth. Are you using the subject matter to deepen understand-

ings of work? Are you utilizing students' work experiences as leads for discussion and study? Are you consulting with counselors and work coordinators to find ways of helping students with their problems of work?

4. As a member of the faculty, participate in (initiate, if necessary) studies of the entire school program, questioning the presence or absence of work experience as the case may be, and of means of improving the program in the light of the needs of youth.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

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Mackenzie, Gordon N., and J. Cecil Parker (eds.), *Toward a New Curriculum*. 1944 Yearbook, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association; Washington, D. C.: the Department, 1944.

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Report of a group of school administrators on the theory and practice of work-experience programs.

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See Chapter VII for a discussion of work experience as a new emphasis in the postwar curriculum.

"Work Experience in the Secondary School," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 111, 27:1–107 (January), 1943.
Part I of the *Bulletin* contains nine chapters or articles dealing with work experience.

XVII CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURE

The Classroom as a Learning Situation

A considerable body of educational literature and most teacher-education programs draw an artificial distinction between the content and method of instruction. Since the present authors regard the curriculum as the total life and program of the school, we distinguish between various learning situations or curriculum elements for the sake of convenience only. Perhaps the only valid differentiation to be made is this: (1) students have certain problems that provide the goals for learning; (2) learnings result from various goal-seeking activities that may take place in a variety of situations; (3) the school provides learning situations in classrooms, out of class but in school, and out of school that are organized around subjects, core plans, work experience, and possibly other organizing centers; (4) the learning outcomes of any situation are the result of a process of goal seeking that involves an inseparable, constantly-changing relationship of purpose, method, and information.

In Chapters XIII to XVI we have considered learning situations (curriculum elements) with particular respect to three centers of organization—subjects, core curriculum, and work experience. In Chapters XVII to XIX we shall consider learning situations with respect to their physical location—classroom, out of class but in school, and out of school. Although this division facilitates our study and discussion, we should keep in mind that the benefits students receive from their curriculums are always the products of a process of goal seeking and that the process is rarely a unique function of any one situation. The classroom, for example, is a prominent and important learning situation but not, as traditionally considered, the only situation in which learning takes place. We should note, too, that the classroom is any room in which the class meets—whether the science laboratory, the home-economics kitchen, the shop room, or the English classroom.

Function of the Classroom in Secondary Education

THE TRADITIONAL RECITATION FUNCTION

Although V. T. Thayer's book on *The Passing of the Recitation* was published in 1928, the recitation has not yet passed out of exist-

ence. Indeed, it is still probably the most usual procedure in secondary school classrooms. Visit any number of secondary classrooms and you will probably observe some thirty students sitting in fixed rows facing the teacher as the following actions occur for from forty to fifty minutes:

1. The roll is called or checked, and announcements are made.
2. The teacher makes a brief statement regarding the nature or purpose of the day's lesson.
3. The teacher asks a series of questions that pupils answer by some volunteer or mechanical arrangement.

or

Pupils read previously prepared answers to questions or exercises in the textbook, workbook, laboratory manual, or guide sheet prepared by the teacher.

or

Pupils recite memory work or read aloud themes, book reports, or other prepared material, or explain problems on the board or read translations of language exercises.

or

Pupils make statements regarding the divisions of an outline on the blackboard or on guide sheets.

4. The teacher makes an assignment for the next day.
5. If time remains, pupils study (read) the next assignment.

This procedure may be varied by the teacher's making the assignment at the beginning rather than at the end of the period or by having the study period at the beginning rather than at the end, or by occasional oral reports, panel discussions, or debates, or by having a pupil serve as the questioner. There also may be less talking and more "doing" in rooms fitted for laboratory or shop work, but even here the procedure may be set on a mechanical basis by the teacher's assignments. By and large, the classroom has been and still is the place where a group of some thirty or more students enrolled in a particular subject "recite" to their teacher what they may have learned since the last recitation. The teacher assigns, questions, corrects, evaluates; the pupil studies and recites.

The recitation function of classroom organization was the logical accompaniment of the educational beliefs that prevailed during our early history. It seems somewhat inconsistent with a modern theory of learning that includes such beliefs as

1. Every individual is unique, having different capacities, interests, and needs—but the recitation procedure assumes the acquisition of certain subject matter by all students at the same time.
2. Individual students learn most effectively through attempting to solve problems of their own—but the recitation procedure gives them little opportunity either to propose or investigate their own problems.
3. The function of a teacher is primarily that of guiding young persons to identify and solve significant problems—but in the recitation both

the identification and solution of problems are already determined by teacher, textbook, or other external authority.

4. Learning contains its own satisfaction, since recognized problems are solved—but the recitation supplies satisfaction through grades and other competitive and external types of motivation.

The authors do not mean to imply that the recitation function is completely inappropriate or unsuccessful. Drill is essential in the acquisition of certain skills, and recitation procedures are undoubtedly adapted to, in fact largely are, drills. All recitations do not consist purely of questions and answers, for the term may cover many discussions, class summaries, and evaluations that are primarily problem-solving activities.

Furthermore, the dominance of the procedure, even in its most unproductive applications, is understandable when we realize that covering the textbook has been the traditional aim of most high school classes, that young teachers who lack practical training, as many do, characteristically teach as they were taught, and that mechanical procedures have generally been encouraged by large classes, inadequate facilities, and standardized and other tests of factual learnings. The authors thus recognize that this procedure is common and has some value. They believe, however, that improvement in secondary education must include changes in recitation procedure, and they hope in this chapter to give the beginning teacher some insight into modifications of the recitation and even into utterly different, alternative procedures.

THE COOPERATIVE-LEARNING FUNCTION

During this century many efforts have been made to develop a type of classroom organization and procedure that will not have the undesirable features of the formal recitation. Some of these efforts have still aimed at the efficient acquisition of facts and skills; some have had broader objectives. Some have involved a complete reorientation of classroom organization and procedure; others have been modifications of the recitation procedure. Such efforts have been advanced in part through the increasing availability of vocational and other types of practical courses, as contrasted with the traditionally academic or cultural courses. Efforts aimed at a new orientation of the classroom have been built on a democratic philosophy of education and a modern psychology of learning. In the aggregate, they assume that the function of the classroom is to facilitate "cooperative learning."

Should you visit a classroom in which the teacher sees the function of classroom organization as cooperative learning you would find a totally different procedure from that described earlier in this chapter. Here your thirty students may be small working groups, or they may be seated in a circle having a discussion; or some may be in the library, others on an excursion, and the remainder at work in the classroom. If the day of your

visit happens to be at the beginning of some new "unit," you would likely see such actions as these in the round-table discussions:

1. The class chairman asks for announcements.
2. The chairman points out that the group completed summaries and evaluations of their previous unit activities at the last session and should today make plans for their next unit.
3. The chairman leads a discussion of possible problems related to the subject (or core theme) that might next be attacked; the secretary records on the board the various suggestions made by the class; and the teacher from time to time comments on the appropriateness of the suggestions.
4. The list of possibilities is reduced by group agreement to three, and a committee for each is organized to report back at the next meeting on the possibilities of studying the problem.
5. The teacher suggests some sources that the committees and others might consult in investigating the possibilities of each problem, and suggests certain related questions for the committees to consider.
6. Plans are made by the committees as to a time and place for getting together, and for preliminary investigations to be made by each committee member.

Table 21 compares the major characteristics of classroom organization and procedure under the two functions of recitation and cooperative learning. You may have difficulty in finding classrooms that will exemplify each characteristic under either function, and you may find overlappings. The essential difference in point of view, however, is clear. The classroom organized for recitation purposes employs procedures that provide for as rapid and as thorough a checking as possible of mastery of assigned subject matter; the classroom organized for cooperative learning employs procedures that provide for as much problem-solving activity on the part of every student as is consistent with the purposes and means agreed on by the group and with the facilities of the school.

The authors believe that modern knowledge regarding learning compels secondary education to move as rapidly as possible from the recitation to the cooperative-learning function. Experimental evidence from the Eight-Year Study, from various studies made by Wrightstone, and from others reviewed by a group of students working under Briggs, and from one by Leonard and Eurich offers unquestionable evidence as to the superiority in measurable outcomes of the nonrecitation procedures, including those of the cooperative-learning type. (See "For Further Study" at the end of this chapter.)

The case for cooperative planning, which is the essential feature of cooperative-learning techniques, is cited as follows in a recent publication of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation:

TABLE 21

Comparison of Two Functions of the Classroom

FEATURES OF CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION AND PROCEDURE	MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS OF	
	RECITATION FUNCTION	COOPERATIVE-LEARNING FUNCTION
Purpose of Activities	Acquisition of facts and skills	Solution of significant problems
Types of Activities	Questions and answers; reading and memorization	Discussion; planning; investigating; reporting; summarizing; evaluating
Who Makes Decisions?	Teacher	Group
Organizing Centers	Assignments made by teacher	Problems agreed on by group
Leader	Teacher	Chosen member of group, with teacher as guide
Grades—Motivation Devices	Grades, awards, failures used for motivation	Internal motivation through group planning
Use of Committees	To secure information assigned by teacher	To secure information desired by group
Use of Tests	To check mastery of subject matter	To diagnose difficulties and help in self-evaluation
Use of Individual Reports	To supplement "minimum-essentials" course	To provide group with needed information
Types of Materials	Textbooks; occasionally, workbooks	Books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, radio, etc.
Use of Materials	To master assignments—usually in textbooks	To secure information on problem from best sources available
Division of Period	To provide fixed amounts for recitation and study	To provide time as needed for group and individual activities
Seating	Fixed rows facing teacher	Flexible—to permit round-table discussions and group work
Use of Blackboard	For drill	For recording plans, problems, purposes, summaries

1. Individuals have an opportunity to learn democratic techniques; they learn a process which has many uses in life.

2. Wise decisions are possible because choices are made in a wider context (greater number and higher quality of ideas are likely to be presented for consideration).

3. Dealing with such a range of ideas may well develop more imagination in members of the group.

4. Individuals have an excellent laboratory for learning critical thinking.

5. The group has an opportunity to grow toward a more common philosophy (for example, teachers, or teachers and parents).

6. Conflicts that arise in group living can be used more creatively.

7. Working as a group gives opportunities to develop appreciation for others in the group. Thus cooperative planning affords one way of helping people build friendships.

8. Cooperative planning offers a basic way of meeting needs and interests of individuals concerned and of tapping their past experiences.

9. Opportunities for all to participate usefully are more easily found.

10. More intelligent and more voluntary cooperation results from group planning.

11. Cooperative planning offers teachers a unique opportunity to study their youngsters, for it puts individuals in a position to reveal certain social strengths and weaknesses.

12. Since cooperative planning is a process that has to be learned gradually, practice in it should accompany experience of learners all along the line.[1]

A recent study by Doll attempted to compare pupil reactions to teaching procedures that he classified as "laissez faire," democratic and autocratic. This study showed that in general the pupils preferred democratic techniques, and also that they found more fault with traditional teaching methods than teachers realized.[2]

CLASSROOM METHODS

Your program of professional courses will probably include a course on general methods and at least one course in special methods, or perhaps only one of these. The typical teacher-training program is based to some extent on the assumption that a prospective teacher learns the subject or subjects he or she will teach in one series of courses, and the methods by which these subjects will be "dosed-out" in another course or series of courses. By now you undoubtedly realize that the authors question the efficacy of any narrow "method" of teaching. Teaching itself is a method of modifying human behavior, and there are varying points of view as to how behavior is modified.

[1] Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, *Guide to Study and Experimentation in Cooperative Planning in Education* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), p. 3.

[2] See Ronald C. Doll, "High School Pupils' Attitudes toward Teachers' Procedures," *The School Review*, **55**:222–227 (April), 1947.

Two utterly different points of view as to the function of the classroom in effecting learning have just been compared. The many different methods of teaching that have been described in educational literature from time to time are generally efforts to implement one or the other of these points of view. Most of these methods have a good many characteristics in common, and one could rarely identify what he sees in a classroom as being uniquely the Morrisonian, Winnetka, or project method of teaching. Nor could a proponent of a particular method claim with justification that his method would solve all problems of classroom organization and procedure. A great many studies have been made of the relative merits of various methods to the end that one can find statistical evidence of the superiority of nearly every method that has been given a name—and the name given them is about the only means of distinguishing some so-called "methods."

There are differences in procedure in certain subjects, of course. Home economics, agriculture, commercial subjects, industrial arts, science, art, and music employ materials and practical work related to the subject. In each of these courses, however there is also opportunity for reading and discussion procedures, while English, social studies, and mathematics may employ "doing" procedures as well as reading and discussion.

Some years ago one of the authors was a member of a group of students who reviewed a large number of experimental studies of various "named" methods that were classified as laboratory, as contrasted with recitation procedures; in general, these methods were more closely related to what we have described earlier as cooperative learning.[3] More recent emphasis on the "socialized recitation," "teacher-pupil planning," "core-curriculum method," and other plans emphasizing cooperative procedures have eliminated some of the emphasis on mastery by all students of minimum essentials inherent in most of the "laboratory" plans. The common characteristics of these latter plans were found to be

1. Unit (larger) assignment
2. Provision for individual differences
3. Decreased emphasis on recitation
4. Increased classroom equipment and materials
5. Changed role of teacher from drillmaster to guide
6. Social cooperation among pupils
7. Emphasis on problem solving and reflective thinking

The similarities between these laboratory plans and the cooperative-learning approach are obvious and show the continuing and growing reaction against the recitation pattern. On the basis of these various studies

[3] See Thomas H. Briggs and others, *Laboratory Techniques of Teaching* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938).

of laboratory plans, the chief conclusions were that "there is a tremendous movement in secondary education looking towards the abandonment of the traditional recitation as the method of teaching," that "no single method will answer all problems and apply in all situations," and that "method would be a synthesis of techniques, not a narrow, mechanized procedure."[4]

We do not mean that you as a prospective teacher should not know some of the more prominent "named" methods. We are merely emphasizing that you will want to be able to use many procedures and techniques in your classroom, the aggregate of which will probably not conform to any narrow method. Later in this chapter we shall discuss certain basic procedures in all methods related to the cooperative-learning function of the classroom. These are the procedures in which you will wish skill, rather than in the narrower, mechanical routines characteristic of some methods. At the same time, as a student of secondary education you will wish to know what some of the better-known methods are and their characteristics. We have named most of them in earlier pages and summarized their chief common provisions. You can secure further information from the several sources on methods listed at the end of this chapter.

Classroom Organization and the Needs of Youth

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION MAY FACILITATE GOAL-SEEKING ACTIVITIES

Whether classroom organization and procedure contribute to the needs of youth depends largely on the nature of that organization and procedure. For example, a common goal of high school students is to secure recognition from their fellows. A form of classroom organization that penalizes and embarrasses students who cannot "recite the answers" puts a premium on an artificial if not adverse kind of recognition, whereas an organization that gives each student a chance to engage in activities most appropriate to his interests and capacities greatly widens the opportunity for recognition.

The type of organization and procedure may also have a great deal to do with the understanding of facts and skills essential to significant student problems. Following a review of various studies concerned with the relative merits of newer and older systems of education, the following conclusions were stated in Leonard and Eurich's *An Evaluation of Modern Education:*

1. With respect to the development of the ability in students to recall facts and principles as measured by the tests used, the newer practices were on the whole at least equally effective as the old.

2. With respect to the development of the ability to apply facts and prin-

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 62–63.

ciples in meaningful and significant situations as determined by the measurements used, the newer practices were on the whole superior to the old.[5]

These findings are similar to those of the other investigators and reviews cited earlier in this chapter.

Although it is impossible to draw the exact specifications of a classroom organization and procedure that will best accommodate all goal-seeking (learning) activities, we do know enough about how learning takes place to formulate certain principles, the application of which should generally facilitate learning:

1. The entire group should be responsible for the formulation of goals and for the planning of goal-seeking activities. That is, questions to be answered, problems to be investigated and solved, skills to be acquired, and similar goals should be identified by the group.

2. The group should have responsibility for its own organization. Chairmen, recorders, and other class officers should be elected by the class. Committees should be determined, and their functions and membership agreed on by the group.

3. The physical environment should be attractive, orderly, and comfortable. Flowers, interesting posters, and clean walls and floors help at school as elsewhere. Good ventilation and adequate lighting and heating are essential. Members of the group should bear the responsibility for checking these conditions daily.

4. The arrangement of seats and persons should be flexible and informal, with as much freedom of movement as is consistent with group welfare. It is to be hoped that high school classrooms will increasingly use small tables and chairs.

5. Each person in the group should be treated with respect, and each contribution should be appropriately recognized. Students are discouraged when their ideas are received ungraciously.

6. Rest or "stretching" periods should be used as indicated by signs of fatigue or discomfort.

7. Time should be carefully budgeted so as to assure the completion of agreed-on jobs. The teacher has a special responsibility, by virtue of experience, to help out here.

8. A balance of individual, small-group, and whole-group activities should be provided. That is, complete reliance on committee study might create as monotonous a situation as does complete reliance on recitation.

9. Resources in books, equipment, and supplies that are needed and obtainable should be made available either in the classroom or in other places to which students may have easy access. Classroom libraries are becoming increasingly common.

10. Appropriate time and opportunities should be available for

[5] J. Paul Leonard and Alvin C. Eurich, eds., *An Evaluation of Modern Education* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1942), pp. 62–63.

practice of specific skills. Thus provision must be made for drill in reading, spelling, writing, outlining, use of graphs and tables, locating information, and other essential skills.

CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION MAY DIRECTLY SATISFY THE NEEDS OF YOUTH

A classroom organization and procedure conforming to the principles just enumerated may, in addition to facilitating goal-seeking activities, directly satisfy certain needs of youth. We have already pointed out how the classroom may effect such goals as that of recognition. If we again refer to another category of broad goals, the ten imperative educational needs of youth, direct relationships may be noted between certain needs and the classroom:

1. Does the classroom organization help youth "to understand the rights and duties of the citizens of a democratic society?" The studies reviewed in Leonard and Eurich's volume supply the answer that "by means of carefully planned activities and discussions, with an emphasis upon problems that are real and meaningful to young people, it has been shown that it is possible to modify attitudes and prejudices and to help students develop a sound philosophy of life and a value pattern that will enable them to take their place in the world as intelligent, mature citizens." [6] That is, every classroom is a potential democratic society, and, if its organization realizes its potentialities—is democratic—students may learn from the organization itself.

For example, the democratic process of identifying problems and planning attacks on them is appropriate in every organized group, and can be learned in no place more easily than in the classroom. A recent experimental study of "democratic, action-centered education" using thirty-six experimental groups in social studies demonstrated that cooperative-learning techniques, emphasizing real problem-solving activities, are more effective in developing understandings, attitudes, and behavior. The techniques involved are described as follows:

> You cannot prepare people for effective membership in a democracy by bringing them up under an autocracy. A part of the theory underlying our method is that people (including children) must learn the ideals and the techniques of democracy by practising them and not merely by talking about them. In our experiment, therefore, we designedly made our classes replicas of the democratic societies for which we wished to prepare pupils as they go through life. The class worked under a pupil chairman. The pupils learned, in a very real situation, to assume responsibility and to carry it out; to lead and to follow intelligently the leadership of others; to be tolerant of other people's values, yet to hold tenaciously to values they have found real for themselves; to be courteous and orderly in debate; to be cooperative; to show respect for others

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 145.

and to receive respect; to talk and listen with the purpose of finding the truth; and to think critically and fearlessly about the real problems of life.[7]

2. Does the classroom organization help students to understand "the conditions conducive to successful family life?" A basic problem in the family life need is that of boy-and-girl relationships. Hull describes as follows classroom practices that help establish good relationships between the sexes as one step toward understanding the bases of enduring relationships:

> Throughout the school boys and girls learn to appreciate each other by working together in small committees which have been given definite assignments to contribute to classroom activities. Often in ninth grade home rooms and English classes, pupils are placed in small groups around tables and given assignments to carry on conversations for a limited time. They are asked to pretend they are at a dinner party or some other social event and to talk about a coming athletic contest or school occasion for five minutes. The teacher moves from one group to another assisting shy conversationalists and helping the pupils teach each other to carry on group discussion with ease and facility. [8]

3. Does the classroom organization help students to understand "the methods of science?" The scientific method solves problems by means of investigating hypotheses, that is, by collecting data and weighing evidence. This deliberate, fact-finding method of critical thinking characterizes the cooperative-learning approach as opposed to the fact-memorizing basis of the recitation method. Research tells us that "the newer compared with the conventional curriculum practices are providing more adequately for skills in critical thinking both at the elementary and at the secondary levels." [9]

4. Does the classroom organization help students "to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely?" The classroom schedule rarely, if ever, makes provision for leisure time. The authors believe that this is a deficiency rather than a strength of the typical schedule. If students need to learn how to budget their time for leisure activities, why should not the classroom organization permit some allowance of time for purely social and recreational activities planned and budgeted by the students? The organization of classes as clubs that plan social or entertainment activities is a fairly common step in this direction. The provision of an activity period is another. Many high schools also operate well-organized recreational programs at the noon hour, including sports and dancing.

[7] Charles C. Peters, "Teaching History and the Social Studies for Citizenship Training," *School and Society*, **67**:78 (January 10), 1948. Also see the complete report by Peters cited in "For Further Study" at the end of this chapter.

[8] J. Dan Hull, "Imperative Need Number 4," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 145, **31**:52 (March), 1947.

[9] Leonard and Eurich, *op. cit.*, p. 170.

5. Does the classroom organization help students "to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others?" Here is the major contribution of the cooperative-learning theory of classroom organization and procedure. Growth in skills of cooperation as well as in reading is gained through practice. Again the evidence cited by Leonard and Eurich is convincing as to the advantages of cooperative-classroom organization and procedures in the development of the skills and other characteristics of cooperation.[10]

6. Does the classroom organization help youth "to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding?" You might find it interesting to record the statements made by students in a typical recitation. Most frequently the statements are answers to direct questions—rarely the kind of expressions we ordinarily make in conversations. Rational thinking does not characterize exercises that consist of repeating phrases and clauses memorized from some book, nor is understanding necessarily involved. Cooperative procedures give students practice in such skills as weighing the merits of different statements and judgments, pooling ideas on a particular problem, and reading and listening for specific purposes.

Further conclusions from Leonard and Eurich's review of the evidence regarding newer and traditional procedures confirm the values of cooperative methods:

> The summation of evidence points clearly to the conclusion that the newer practices have vitalized instruction in language skills, and that the achievement of pupils equals or surpasses that of conventional-school pupils in spelling, usage, and writing.[11]

> The summation of evidence of growth on work-study skills clearly favors the pupils from schools with the modern curriculum . . . many more opportunities for practising work-study skills are provided in the newer curriculum.[12]
> . . . growth in reading skills is not hampered by newer curriculum practices. If anything, the newer curricular practices contribute an increment to growth in reading skills.[13]

Using the Classroom for Effective Learning

Although we cannot provide a formula guaranteed to make you succeed in the classroom, we can point out some of the major functions of every teacher who has a classroom devoted to cooperative learning. These are the functions for which you can and should prepare if experiences in your classroom are to be successful in the guidance of stu-

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 171–177.
[11] *Ibid.*, pp. 163–164.
[12] *Ibid.*, p. 166.
[13] *Ibid.*, p. 158.

dents toward solutions of their problems. Even if your teaching situation is such that you are forced to use a modified recitation procedure, many of the suggestions contained in this section will be feasible.

PLANNING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

It should not be implied from our emphasis on pupil-teacher planning that the teacher has no need for the advance planning of learning experiences. In fact, the preplanning needed for cooperative learning is of considerably wider scope than that for the recitation, because for the former you must anticipate many alternative plans of action, and for the latter, only one. If, however, the role of the teacher in cooperative learning is more difficult, it is also more satisfying.

There are several levels of planning in which a teacher should be competent: (1) the general framework of the course or core; (2) the basic divisions (units of work) within the course or core; and (3) the day-by-day sequence of experiences. The first and second phases of planning are largely or altogether matters for the teacher or teachers and are generally described as "curriculum planning." The third phase is largely a matter of cooperative planning in the classroom situation.

You will likely have one or more of several aids in planning the general framework of the year's work. Traditionally, the framework is set by the textbook or a course of study closely following the textbook, but this kind of plan is not consistent with the concept of learning as a cooperative problem-solving process. You may hope that in your school there is a modern, flexible course of study or an organization for planning such a course of study. The course of study that is given you or that you help develop should answer such questions as these on the basis of teachers' cooperaitve study and planning:

1. To what needs of youth should this course contribute?
2. What are the related needs of the community and society in general?
3. What resources are available in the subject (or core organization), the school, and the community?
4. What characteristics of youth in the group should be understood as possible determinants of the nature and order of learning experiences?
5. What skills are important to a solution of the problems around which instruction may be organized?
6. What are the possible organizing centers (or *units of work*) for the course?

Inevitably in this planning process you will become concerned about major divisions or blocks of the course. This problem is relatively easy when the course parallels the chapter organization of textbooks, but more difficult when the organizing centers are student problems. Increasingly

in modern education curriculum planners have planned in terms of units of work. First popularized by the Morrisonian concept of units of subject matter, definitions of units have varied from division of textbooks to organizations of related experiences. You will find excellent reviews of the development and meaning of units of work in the publication by Leonard (Chapter XIII) cited at the end of this chapter. For present purposes it will be helpful for us to think of a unit of work as a "basic organization of youth activities devoted to the understanding of some significant youth problem appropriate for investigation by the class group."

Having a general plan for the course or class, you will wish to plan for as many units of work as are feasible. Here you will be greatly aided by "source units" prepared by other teachers or, better, by yourself. You can read an excellent treatment of source units in a chapter (14), "Developing Units of Work," by Leonard, who summarizes as follows: (1) "It is prepared by teachers for the use of teachers; (2) it is not to be handed to pupils to become a plan for the study of the unit; (3) it must be organized around a central problem; (4) it must contain more materials than any one teacher can use; (5) it must contain suggestions for aims, activities, bibliography, and other types of classroom materials." [14] For example, a mimeographed unit from the Denver Public Schools, *The United Nations Work Together for Peace—A Unit on the United Nations Organization for Use in the Senior High Schools* (1946) contains fifty-seven pages of helpful material for teachers. This source unit contains the following sections:

Part One—Introduction
Part Two—Purposes of the Unit
Part Three—Essential Information
Part Four—Problems for Study and Discussion
Part Five—Suggested Learning Experiences
Part Six—Resources (includes books, pamphlets, periodicals, visual materials, community organizations, and radio programs)

It is not likely that you will be able to prepare a complete set of such source units during your first year or so of teaching—indeed, it would be unfortunate for you to depend entirely at any time in your teaching career on previously prepared units. There are, however, a number of specific things you can do before and during each year's work to help with each unit finally developed by the groups you teach:

1. Collect clippings, pictures, pamphlets, and other related "fugitive" materials

2. Prepare lists of related books (with page references) and films and other audiovisual aids

[14] J. Paul Leonard, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum* (New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1946), p. 461.

3. Keep records of pupil questions, problems, and needs that may or did lead to the unit

4. Prepare descriptions of possible or actual activities

5. List places to go for visits, field trips, interviews (with all the information needed for advance arrangements)

6. Keep records of the final evaluations of any units completed.

The planning done from day to day will be a matter of selecting materials and activities from those that may have been anticipated in the

PLATE 27

A ROOM ORGANIZED FOR DISCUSSION. Circular arrangement of furniture helps the discussion leader and participants. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

source unit, or of developing other activities or finding new materials, in the light of plans made cooperatively with pupils. Here the role of the teacher is to stimulate and guide group planning so that the problem is selected and outlined, jobs are decided on, references are designated, trips are planned, individual projects are chosen, and time schedules agreed on. It will be important to include in the original group planning suggestions for record keeping and final evaluation. The teacher must be alert in building on pupil interests, skillful in location of sources, and critical in forming judgments of the worth of various activities.

ORGANIZING THE CLASSROOM SITUATION

There are two major problems of organization in every classroom: (1) organizing the room itself, and (2) organizing the group. The type of room organization which is shown in Plate 27 is facilitated by

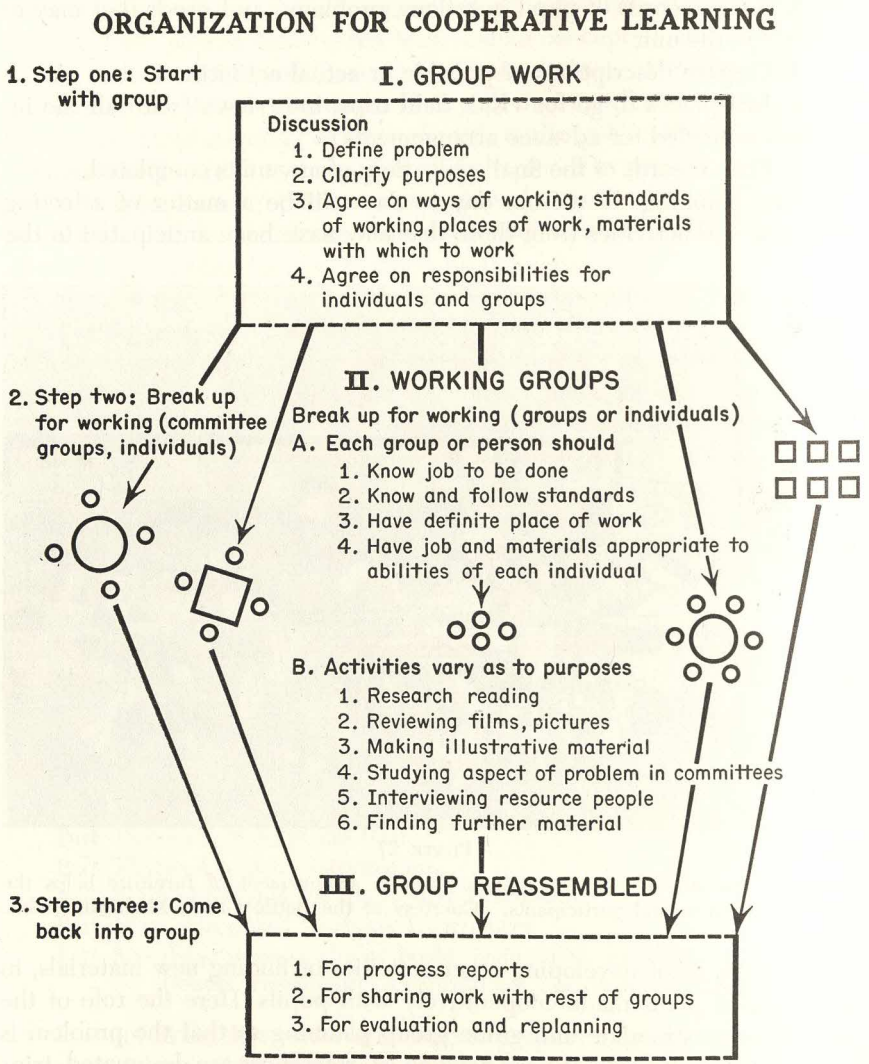

FIG. 8. ORGANIZATION FOR COOPERATIVE LEARNING (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools, *Tentative Guide in Social Studies,* August, 1948, p. 10. Mimeographed)

conference tables or small conference rooms, movable, comfortable chairs, and plenty of cupboards, files, bookshelves, and bulletin boards. In the usual absence of such facilities, the resourcefulness of the teacher is severely taxed. If the school cannot provide the kinds of chairs, tables, shelves, and bulletin boards needed, perhaps the pupils can help by supplying shop products. Every teacher can create an organization that will make the best use possible of whatever facilities are available. Pupil committees may be given responsibility for keeping the room clean and

attractive, for the bulletin board, and for arrangement of chairs and tables.

As already suggested, the group itself should determine its organization. However, the teacher should be able to suggest various alternatives and see that the decisions made are based on careful consideration of purpose. Student chairmen of the entire group and of committees will be needed; standing committees, if they are desired by the group, will have to be appointed; standards of group behavior should be agreed on. Figure 8 illustrates the cooperative learning organization.

The first job of every teacher is to become as well acquainted as possible with the group and to promote acquaintances within the group. Getting acquainted may be facilitated by introductions, by autobiographies, by records, and by individual conferences. You may find it profitable to spend the first week or more just getting acquainted with your group; the subsequent planning will proceed much more rapidly and successfully.

A major purpose in the organization phase of your work and throughout all subsequent activities is that of understanding the individual pupil—his capacities, needs, and problems. Later activities should be planned with regard to his status in reading, speaking, health, and other characteristics. Within the same classroom group there may be a range of reading ability from the fourth grade to college. Some students will be capable of expressing their ideas, others may be inarticulate. For all these youth, the teacher must be prepared to help plan, carry on, and evaluate appropriate goal-seeking activities.

GUIDING DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES

Probably no skill is more important to the teacher than discussion leadership. One reason for the ineffectiveness of many teachers in discussions is their unwillingness to let the students set the agenda of a discussion. Once the problems are cooperatively set by the group, effective discussion can follow. Students in general lack skill in discussion leadership, and you may frequently have to serve as leader. However, a good leader develops other leaders, and one test of your ability as a discussion leader will be your success in training students to become good leaders themselves.

You may find helpful certain suggestions in a little pamphlet from the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction entitled *Understanding through Discussion.* It describes a good discussion leader in these words: "A good leader is a participant, not an instructor; a guide, not a dictator. He holds his own opinions in the background. He is patient, self-restraining, objective, alert in mind, has a knowledge of people, and a stimulating personality." [15]

[15] Michigan Department of Public Instruction, *Understanding through Discussion* (Bulletin No. 339; Lansing, Mich.: Eugene B. Elliott, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1945), p. 10.

Some of the suggestions made in this bulletin for discussion group leaders are appropriate for teachers:

1. See that the room is physically comfortable.
2. See that everyone is comfortably seated, each in view of the others.
3. Suggest that members (pupils) remain seated as they speak.
4. See that everyone is acquainted or introduced; learn members by names.
5. State at the outset that everyone is to take part but that there are to be no speeches or monopoly of time.
6. Be equipped to take notes even though you may have a secretary; brief notes are helpful in directing progress and making summaries. A blackboard can often be used advantageously to record points, contrasts or outlines.
7. See that the question is understood by everyone.
8. Have several pointed questions to address to the group if needed to open discussion.
9. Show appreciation for each member's contribution.
10. Keep the discussion on the topic and make progress. Restating issues helps to bring it back.
11. Have the discussion proceed among members, not between leader and successive members. (The latter becomes a recitation.)
12. Point out important angles that are being neglected by saying: "Was this mentioned?" "Does this fact have bearing?" "Did Jack mean this?" "Are we agreed on this phase?" Get balance of opinion.
13. Keep the discussion friendly and informal and from becoming too serious. A story, an apt remark, a good laugh will help.
14. Summarize frequently: "Is this your conclusion?" "What has been said?" "Are we agreed on this?" "Is this the point upon which we are disagreed?"
15. Close the meeting with a summary, pointed but brief; isolate facts from chaff; give progress in thinking, conclusions, decisions, disagreements, unsolved issues. Make it skillful, to end with spirits high and a desire for further study and discussion.[16]

GUIDING INDIVIDUAL AND COMMITTEE ACTIVITIES

A long step toward successful individual and committee activities is taken when the problems to be attacked are arrived at by the group. Individuals and committees with specific goals on which they are agreed may be expected to bring back information and conclusions. Many of the activities will be suggested by the students, although the teacher should be prepared to suggest a variety and to guide the group in deciding whether or not activities suggested may have value. The teacher must know each student well enough to judge the appropriateness of activities for him, must give specific suggestions on how to locate information, and must be on the alert to help him develop needed work habits and skills.

A great variety of activities are usually possible, including such types as these:

[16] *Ibid.*, pp. 17–18.

1. Looking up information in published sources
2. Conducting surveys in school and community
3. Visiting offices, institutions, and the like to secure information
4. Writing letters to secure information
5. Preparing digests and files of clippings and other materials
6. Interviewing, or bringing to the group, resource persons
7. Meeting with community groups interested in the problems being investigated

PLATE 28

EXHIBITS ARRANGED BY PUPILS. Graphic materials are useful in the study of current problems. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

8. Making posters, charts, graphs, giving information desired
9. Writing materials for school publications
10. Preparing for panel discussions, debates, forums
11. Making bulletin board exhibits (see Plate 28)
12. Preparing bibliographies
13. Seeing appropriate movies

Much of the teacher's work with individuals and groups is concerned with development of skills. There must be time to give help in learning to read for information and understanding. Some students will need special drill in spelling, pronunciation, and writing forms. Skills in reading graphs, charts, maps, newspapers, and reference books require practice. Some

students will need special help in using books intelligently; others in phrasing reports, and still others in presenting thoughts in discussion. Most subject areas require development of specific skills unique to the area. Inasmuch as students vary in abilities, it is essential that the classroom organization provide time for individual students and small groups to work at their particular levels.

The guidance of reading activities has become an increasingly important and difficult task as secondary education has become more nearly universal. The pupils in today's high schools are less of a kind than were those of a generation ago, and exhibit wider differences in reading ability. If the philosophy just expressed—of teaching each child at his own level—is accepted, almost every teacher becomes a reading teacher. Your training for secondary teaching should include some preparation in reading instruction.

There are excellent professional materials on reading now available to help teachers in service. One source you may find helpful, Denver's *Toward Better Reading*, lists the following "basic essentials for planning a reading program in the secondary school:"

1. An awareness of the reading strengths and weaknesses of all pupils and sympathy with them
2. Recognition by each teacher of his responsibility in providing for the reading needs and interests of pupils
3. Knowledge of effective techniques
4. Familiarity with available materials that will meet the reading needs of all pupils
5. An adequate diagnostic testing program, followed by constructive reading instruction
6. Cooperative planning between the librarian and the teachers in content areas relative to pupils' reading skills and interests and to ways of meeting them
7. Intervisitation and observation of reading activities by teachers in the elementary, junior high, and senior high schools
8. An understanding by parents and pupils of the reading demands made upon young people in all walks of life.[17]

GUIDING EVALUATION ACTIVITIES

The traditional evaluation activity of secondary education consists of pencil-and-paper tests. A more adequate concept of evaluation includes all the activities whereby an individual or group determines how well agreed-on purposes have been achieved. Pencil-and-paper tests may be used to determine how well basic information is understood, but this is

[17] Denver Public Schools, *Toward Better Reading; An Instructional Guide for Use in the Junior and Senior High Schools of Denver* (Denver, Colo.: The Schools, 1945), p. 26.

merely one phase of evaluation. Other evaluation activities that you will wish to know how to conduct include:

1. Discussions by the entire group and by small groups
2. Papers written by youth
3. Check lists used by youth for self-evaluation
4. Published tests on beliefs, applications of principles, critical thinking, and the like
5. Various types of programs (plays, panel discussions, pageants) designed to review units of work
6. Anecdotal records, diaries, and logs for study of growth over a period of time
7. Checks (made quietly by one person) on the number of participants in discussions
8. Questionnaires to determine various facts concerning youth activities
9. Exercises on such skills as use of dictionary, encyclopedia, card catalog

Evaluation is frequently discussed wholly in terms of individual achievement. There are really several aspects of evaluation with which you as a teacher will be concerned—evaluation of the total school program, of the progress of a group, of a particular unit, and of individual growth. Characteristically, individual growth has been evaluated by comparison with a certain group standard. For example, many teachers give marks based on pupil achievement on tests, the standard being determined by the test. Pupils whose answers to the questions are considered 75 per cent correct, for example, pass in the course. Note that such a standard gives no consideration to the individual's background, capacities, and interests.

Where marks must be given, and at present they are almost universally given in secondary schools, a practice much more consistent with a democratic philosophy of education is to have a standard for each student based on his unique characteristics. A student's progress will be "passing" on this basis when his rate of growth is consistent with his previous experience, capacities, and purposes. Schemes of marks and reports to parents that depart from the conventional subject-matter grades (numerical or letter) are concerned with growth in such areas as these:

1. Basic skills of communication
2. Habits of work
3. Cooperation
4. Ability to formulate and solve problems
5. Self-discipline
6. Ability to locate information
7. Understanding of facts and principles

The accompanying copy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, report form for junior high core pupils is reproduced here to illustrate this type of evaluation system (Fig. 9).

BATTLE CREEK PUBLIC SCHOOLS

_____ Junior High School

_____ 19 _____

Name _____ Home Room _____ Subject Social Studies & Language Arts (Core Subjects)

COMMENTS

No. Times Absent _____ _____

No. Times Tardy _____ _____

The core subjects provide opportunities for students to participate in language arts, and social studies experiences. The aim is to continue progress in the skills of reading, writing, spelling and listening, and in the understandings and attitudes needed by citizens.

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BELOW IS A DESCRIPTION OF YOUR CHILD'S PROGRESS IN GROUP RELATIONSHIPS AND FUNDAMENTAL KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS. IT IS AN INDIVIDUAL PROGRESS REPORT AND IS NOT INTENDED AS A COMPARISON OF YOUR CHILD WITH ANOTHER.

- - - - - - - - - - - - -

Explanation of Marks:

S--Satisfactory--is making expected progress.
U--Unsatisfactory--is not making expected progress.
O--Outstanding--is making more than expected progress.

- - - - - - - - - - - - -

PROGRESS IN:	MARK	COMMENTS
1. Getting along with others		
2. Thinking and working independently		
3. Fulfilling responsibilities		
4. Participating in class planning and activities		
5. Keeping up with current events		
6. Understanding background and problems of present-day society		
7. Reading accurately and with understanding		
8. Finding and using resource materials		
9. Writing effectively		
10. Speaking effectively		
11. Listening effectively		
12. Spelling in all written work		
13. Originality in thought and work		

Teacher's Signature

FIG. 9. SAMPLE FORM—REPORT TO PARENTS (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

Although reports are also discussed in Chapter IX, their relationships to teaching and learning should be observed at this point. The results of marks and reports to parents, so far as helping students is concerned, are frequently if not generally negative in nature. Marks are inevitable in a system of education that aims solely at the acquisition of subject matter and in which the only recognized difference between individual students are those of ability to learn the required material. Inextricably woven into this philosophy is the traditional pattern of assignment, textbooks, drill, recitation, tests, marks, report of marks, promotion, and graduation. As new movements in education have pointed out the undemocratic nature of this system and emphasized the necessity of curriculum plans based on learners' needs instead of subject organization, it has become necessary to revise systems of marks and reports.

In elementary schools various plans designed to eliminate marks as the basis of motivation have been adopted, and narrative reports, check lists of growth, and parent conferences have replaced the traditional numerical or letter marks and the report card. Fewer secondary schools have made fundamental revisions, although various procedures such as that illustrated by the Battle Creek report are being experimented with.

Check lists of various types may be helpful in evaluating phases of pupil growth. The fact that reports to parents have very frequently been used by both teachers and parents as a sort of "club" does not mean that periodic checking of growth in important traits is useless in a positive type of evaluation. For example, such a check list as that illustrated in the accompanying form (Figure 10), from one of the Denver junior high schools has space for fourteen different evaluations. A check list of this type might be completed by pupil, parent, and teacher, or by all three, and used as a basis for self-improvement as well as pupil-teacher or parent-teacher conferences.

Marks and reports may also be helpful to teachers in planning for and evaluating each pupil's activities. In the first place, marks and reports may be consulted to secure information about students. However, here it must be remembered that marks are somewhat meaningless without an understanding of the basis on which they are given. Also, study of these marks and reports may give an insight into the students' purposes—that is, is it indicated whether the students were concerned primarily about marks or about other values?

In the second place, study of the individual student will result in some standard you may use for him, regardless of the systems of marking and reporting demanded by the school. If you have to give letter or numerical marks, you can do so in terms of some standard for each pupil rather than in terms of some artificial group standard. An individual system is obviously impossible without rather full data on which to base your estimate of an individual's capacities, purposes, and progress. Finally, the

reports you send parents are one basis of a teacher-parent relationship that provides further information about the individual student. Reports may serve this purpose, of course, only if you follow them with conferences, or at least make it clear that parents interested in further information are invited to come for conferences.

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SMILEY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

RECORD OF_____ DATE_____ ROOM_____ GRADE_____

This sheet is designed to assist the student in getting a more complete picture of his growth in terms of the school objectives.
KEY TO RATING TERMS: PN—Progressing normally. N—Needs improvement. E—Exceptional growth.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
HABITS AND SKILLS														
1. Being punctual (a) appointments														
(b) work assignments														
2. Expressing ideas effectively (a) oral														
(b) written														
3. Reading supplementary material														
4. Using reference materials														
5. Coming to class with necessary materials														
6. Attacking problems systematically														
7. Using class time effectively														
8. Following good health procedures														
9. Listening and observing courteously														
10. Following directions or plans														
ATTITUDES AND APPRECIATIONS														
11. Showing persistence in completing work which has been chosen or assigned														
12. Taking responsibility for make-up work														
13. Producing an acceptable quality of class work														
14. Respecting rights and properties of others														
15. Cooperating with instructors and members of class														
16. Responding to constituted authority														
17. Doing his OWN work (self-reliance)														
18. Participating in (a) class activities														
(b) discussion														
19. Developing open-mindedness														
20. Developing aesthetic appreciations														
21. Giving and accepting constructive criticism in a courteous manner														
INTERESTS														
22. Participating in creative expression														
23. Showing breadth of interests														
24. Showing interest in self-improvement														
25. Showing interest in the welfare of others														

FIG. 10. SAMPLE CHECK LIST FOR PUPIL EVALUATION (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

Preparing for Effective Classroom Organization and Procedure

You will undoubtedly have one or more courses in classroom methods that will provide help in your preparation for classroom work. The authors of this book, however, wish to emphasize a few needs of beginning teachers that you should anticipate in your training.

First of all, the beginning teacher needs all the benefit possible from previous observation and participation in teaching. If you seriously con-

template teaching, help yourself by visiting as many skillful teachers as you can.

Secondly, beginning teachers frequently have difficulty because they know only one or a few methods of procedure. You will do well to experiment with as many different procedures as possible in your student teaching, and to study about or observe still others.

Finally, two abilities are fundamental in successful classroom procedure: (1) ability to understand and help students at their own level, and (2) ability in directing group discussion. These are abilities that teachers-to-be should cultivate at every opportunity.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

Appy, Nellie (chm.), *Pupils Are People*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941.
A report of the Committee on Individual Differences of the National Council of Teachers of English. Presents examples of individualizing instruction in English at different levels and through various approaches.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, *Group Processes in Supervision*. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1948.
An extensive discussion of how and where group processes may be used in a democratic school. Helpful to teachers in learning to use group techniques.

———, *Toward Better Teaching*. 1949 Yearbook; Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1949.
Examples of good teaching practices from many schools and from different levels.

Baxter, Bernice, *Teacher-Pupil Relationships*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941.
See Chapter III for analysis of the practices of effective and non-effective teachers, and Chapter V for description of an effective teacher.

Billett, Roy O., *Fundamentals of Secondary-School Teaching with Emphasis on the Unit Method*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.
A standard text on methods in secondary teaching. Chapters XVI to XVIII give specific consideration to unit organization and include specimen units.

Bossing, Nelson L., *Progressive Methods of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942.
Deals with classroom procedures and specific methods of teaching.

Briggs, Thomas H., and others, *Laboratory Techniques of Teaching.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.
Review of research dealing with laboratory or nonrecitation methods of teaching.

Brubacher, John S., *A History of the Problems of Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947.
Chapters VII and VIII trace the history of methods of teaching.

Burton, William H., *The Guidance of Learning Activities.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1944.
Presents principles of teaching, and describes teaching procedures in relation to two general schemes: (1) "the traditional assign-study-recite-test procedure," and (2) "the more recently developed unitary organization." Part II deals with techniques common to both schemes.

Dale, Edgar, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching.* New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1946.
Comprehensive treatment of the theory and practice of audiovisual methods. Gives specific applications of methods in varied situations.

Denver Public Schools, *Toward Better Reading; An Instructional Guide for Use in the Junior and Senior High Schools of Denver.* Denver, Colo.: The Schools, 1945.
Helpful guide for teachers regarding principles, problems, and techniques of reading instruction in secondary schools.

Doll, Ronald C., "High-School Pupils' Attitudes toward Teaching Procedures," *School Review,* 55:222–27 (April), 1947.
Report of a study by "expressionaire" to determine pupils' reactions toward democratic and undemocratic teaching proceedures.

Douglass, Harl R., and Hubert H. Mills, *Teaching in High School.* New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1948.
An extensive discussion of teaching and the work of a teacher in the modern high school.

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940.
Chapter III presents many descriptions of classroom teaching procedures that exhibit democratic principles.

Featherstone, W. B., *Teaching the Slow Learner.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.
Identifies the slow learner and gives specific suggestions for teaching and guidance.

Giles, H. H., *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941.
An especially helpful guide for those who wish to use a broader basis of planning in their teaching.

Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, *Guide to Study and Experimentation in Cooperative Planning in Education.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.
Source book on procedures in cooperative planning.

———, *The Teacher's Role in Pupil-Teacher Planning.* New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

A brief, practical source book on cooperative planning procedures in the classroom.

It Pays to Talk It Over. Washington, D. C.: National Institute of Social Relations, Inc., 1947.
Helpful handbook on the "why, who, what, and how" of discussion. See the "Check-List for Discussion Leaders," page 28.

Leonard, J. Paul, *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum.* New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1946.
See Chapter 13, "Organizing and Using Units of Work," Chapter 14, "Developing Units of Work," and Chapter 15, "Evaluating Pupil Learning."

———, and Alvin C. Eurich, *An Evaluation of Modern Education.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1942.
This review of research studies evaluating modern educational practices defines modern education in Chapter 1, and in Chapters 2 to 7 analyzes research findings in terms of educational objectives. See especially Chapter 4, "Experimental Programs and the Development of Social Attitudes."

McBurney, James H., and Kenneth G. Hance, *The Principles and Methods of Discussion.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1939.
Deals with group discussion, panel discussion, the dialogue, the forum lecture, and the forum: techniques and principles.

Michigan Department of Public Instruction, *Planning and Working Together.* Bulletin No. 337; Lansing, Mich.: Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1945.
A helpful treatment of procedures in general and specialized education, especially with reference to use of source units.

———, *Understanding through Discussion.* Bulletin No. 339, Lansing, Mich.: Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1945.
Helpful analysis of procedures in carrying on discussions.

Mursell, James L., *Successful Teaching—Its Psychological Principles.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946.
Applies six psychological principles to the organization of learning and to the appraisal of teaching. Chapters 1 to 4 analyze the meaning, problem, and orientation of successful teaching.

Peters, Charles C., *Teaching High School History and Social Studies for Citizenship Training—The Miami Experiment in Democratic, Action-Centered Education.* Coral Gables, Fla.: University of Miami, 1948.
Reports a controlled experiment to determine the effectiveness of problem solving and action techniques in social studies as compared with traditional classroom procedures. See Chapter II, "Instructional Techniques for Putting the DAC Method into Practice," and Chapter VI, "Practical Observations about Putting the DAC Method into Practice."

Umstattd, J. G., *Secondary School Teaching,* (rev. edit.). Boston: Ginn & Company, 1944.
Presents problems and procedures in teaching in these categories: preinstructional problems, procedures involving the unit idea, additional classroom procedures, and associated activities of the teacher.

Van Til, William, "A Fable of Textbook Strategy," *Educational Leadership*, 5:215–220 (January), 1948.
An amusing and illuminating fable about textbooks, their authors, and their users.

Wrinkle, William L., *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1947.
Helpful source book on marks and reports. See especially Chapter 8, "What Are Some of the Departures from Conventional Practices and How Good Are They?"

XVIII OUT-OF-CLASS SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

A traditional confusion in the philosophy and terminology of secondary education is the distinction made between curricular and extracurricular activities. Originally, the extracurricular was, as the name implies, outside the curriculum, but steadily there has been progress both towards incorporating extracurricular activities into the curriculum and toward accepting the definition of the curriculum as the total life and program of the school. According to the latter point of view, a learning experience in the auditorium, library, or social room may be as important to students as one in the classroom. Unfortunately, credit has usually been given only for the latter, although in recent years many schools have adopted plans for recognizing by credit or other means non-classroom work. Also, some schools have reorganized their programs so that the influence of the credit tag on various school activities is diminished. In this chapter we are treating out-of-class school activities separately not because they are extracurricular but because of the difference in location and organization of learning experiences.

What Out-of-Class Activities Are Provided?

We lack space in this book to describe all types of out-of-class activities completely, and you can use the references cited at the end of the chapter to locate more exhaustive treatments. For present purposes it is sufficient to identify several major types of activities commonly provided in secondary schools, and to describe each briefly with reference to such factors as purpose, organization, program, and curricular status.

ASSEMBLIES

Assembly programs provide learning situations of potentially rich significance in all secondary schools. Whether they are used for announcements and routine activities or for more important learning situations depends on their organization and nature in individual schools. In a study reported in the November, 1946, issue of the *Bulletin* of the National Association for the Secondary School Principals, it was found that those responsible for assembly programs in 336 selected secondary schools rated certain proposed purposes of assemblies as follows:[1]

[1] "The Assembly Program of the Secondary School," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 131, **30**:7 (November), 1946.

PURPOSE	NUMBER OF TIMES NAMED	PER CENT OF ALL SCHOOLS STUDIED
1. Develop school spirit	314	93
2. Educational—cultural	312	92
3. Provide guidance	267	79
4. Recreational	265	78
5. Demonstrate work of classes	194	57
6. Supplement work of classes	182	54
7. Motivate work of classes	164	48

Although the distinctions between these categories are not too clear, one conclusion is obvious: these schools conceived of assembly programs as learning situations.

We may reach certain conclusions concerning the goals sought in the assembly learning situation by study of assembly programs. What are the most valuable high school assembly programs you have seen? In answer to a similar question regarding their schools, the 336 assembly directors included in the study referred to listed as most valuable the following types of programs in addition to a large number of programs grouped by the editors as miscellaneous:

Special day programs
Special week programs
Forums (panels, Junior Town Hall Meetings, and the like)
Demonstration programs (fashion shows, and the like)
Student talent programs
Programs by outsiders
Musical programs
Honor or Award programs
Program to install student officers
"Pep," "Rally," or "Booster" programs[2]

In these 336 schools, it was further found that announcements were made in assembly by 190 schools, or 56 per cent; that 95 per cent had group singing; that 56 per cent secured one or more assembly programs from commercial assembly agencies; that the average proportion of assembly programs sponsored by outside agencies was 11.6 per cent; that 40 per cent exchanged programs with other schools.[3]

Participation at least in attendance at assembly is almost universal, attendance being optional in only 21 of these 336 schools. However, many schools, particularly larger ones, find it convenient to have separate programs for different groups. Assembly programs are invariably held during the school day and indeed provide the one common experience of

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 33–38.
[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 27–31.

all students (unless the group is divided). They vary in frequency, although the most usual practice is one assembly a week.

Practices in planning assembly programs vary widely, although most schools have some planning committee (70 per cent of the schools included in the study reviewed) with the chairman or some other person designated to perform executive functions. The committees usually include student representation. Programs may be planned by the committee, sometimes with reference to suggestions made by other members of the faculty and student body; or responsibility for programs may be assigned to different clubs, departments, and faculty members. Programs can be related to classroom instruction by arrangements for classroom groups to bring their projects to the auditorium for the enlightenment of the entire school. Assembly periods may also be used for discussion of school-wide campaigns and other projects that may later be undertaken by all or many class groups. Public address systems (see Plate 29) also serve large schools.

ATHLETIC AND INTRAMURAL SPORTS

Probably the most common and also the most widely criticized out-of-class school activities are those included in interscholastic athletics. Almost every high school has its teams in football, basketball, and baseball that compete with other teams of the vicinity, frequently on some league or tournament basis. Highly competitive and commercial influences may be controlled to some extent by regulations of the usual state or regional athletic association, but criticisms still exist that too much emphasis is placed on this one phase of school activity and that various malpractices result.

Many schools have experimented with various procedures for extending the desirable benefits of athletics and minimizing the competitive and commercial aspects. Most of the methods employed are aimed toward participation by more high school students. Thus intramural teams and competition are encouraged and generally made a part of the physical-education program, frequently taking place within the school day; other sports such as tennis, golf, swimming, and volley ball are included; and several equally good teams are organized in each sport to assist the physical development of a maximum number of students rather than to provide entertainment for spectators.

These efforts to widen participation and diminish vicious competition have as yet affected too few communities. In many, athletics still exist for those most able physically; intramural sports are distinctly second to interscholastic activities; coaches are paid salaries out of proportion to those given other teachers; and the whole athletic program, except for eligibility rules for players, is operated somewhat independently of the instructional program and purposes of the school.

The question of eligibility is a rather difficult one, philosophically. The common practice of requiring some achievement standard for those who participate in athletics provides this type of motivation and also may help to eliminate the playing of individuals brought to school only for athletics. At the same time, this practice may eliminate the very students whose only proficiency is in athletics.

PLATE 29

BROADCASTING A DRAMA OVER A SCHOOL PUBLIC ADDRESS SYSTEM. In large schools public address systems take announcements and programs directly to the classrooms. (Courtesy of the Denver, Colorado, Public Schools)

CLUBS

The club and extraclass programs are practically identical in many schools; that is, all out-of-class activities are organized as clubs. Frequently, clubs are organized within subject classes as a device for social, recreational, and other activities that traditionally are for fun rather than learning. A functioning club program characteristically cuts across other organizational lines within the school and provides opportunities for students to work or play together on the basis of common interests in some hobby or other activity. On this basis there is adequate opportunity for students to propose and organize their own clubs and for elimination of clubs that do not develop an interested membership.

The following statement of the purposes of school clubs is from an issue of a *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals devoted to "Vitalizing Student Activities in the Secondary School":

1. They provide opportunities for learning experiences based on pupil interests.
2. Clubs serve as a supplement to the curriculum, especially in the small school.
3. The club affords opportunity for developing pupil abilities.
4. Clubs may furnish a constructive use for leisure time.
5. The club may serve as an exploration of occupational interests.[4]

A high school of 1,500 students with which one of the authors was associated had the following clubs in 1948–1949:

Student Council
Daughters of Liberty
Book Club
Boys' Athletic Association
Boys' Bowling Club
Girls' Athletic Association
Girl Reserve Clubs
Hi-Y
Hobby Club
Junior Merchants Club
La Alianza Española (Spanish Club)
Latin Club
Youth Hostel
Creative Writing Club
World Federalists
Le Cercle français (French Club)
Political Science Club
Pan-American Club
Dramatics
Player's Club
National Thespian Dramatic Honor Society for High Schools
Science Club
Usher Club
Christian Crusaders
Cobustra Club (Co-Business Training)
Lettermen's Club
Modern Dance Club

The number and the types of clubs the school may have are determined by their function (whether to serve special interests or to extend subject classes), by the size of the school, and by the schedule.

School clubs may be classified according to purpose as follows:

1. *Curriculum.* Many clubs are organized in relation to the course offerings of the school to provide for social programs and other types of projects which relate to foreign language, science, home economics, and so forth.

2. *Service.* Usher clubs, pep clubs, athletic associations, and similar groups exist primarily to provide services for the school.

3. *National youth affiliates.* Several types of clubs operate on a national basis as youth organizations generally concerned with a character-

[4] Edgar G. Johnston, ed., "Vitalizing Student Activities in the Secondary School," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 102, **25**:31–33 (December), 1941.

building function, such as Boy and Girl Scouts, Hi-Y, and Junior Red Cross.

4. *Hobbies.* Camera, dance, radio, and other types of clubs are directly concerned with the development of leisure-time interests.

5. *Honor societies.* Various types of local and national honor societies seek to develop and recognize scholarship. The most widely known of these societies is the National Honor Society, sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

If, as is probably true in the majority of schools, clubs meet after school, membership is immediately denied students who are transported by bus or who work after school. If clubs meet during some activity period, the interest factor is sometimes jeopardized by a rule that all students must belong to one of certain traditional clubs. However, the activity period is generally regarded as a sound way of providing all students opportunity for club membership and may be effective when various other leisure opportunities are provided and when all special-interest organizations are so flexible that they give students freedom in following their interests. Characteristically, each club has a faculty sponsor, although practice varies as to the type of leadership sponsors give—here again the club and its program may be based on the interests of pupils, or teacher purposes and ideas may dominate.

CONTESTS, FESTIVALS, AND TOURNAMENTS

A prevalent and not always educationally appropriate group of out-of-class activities includes various types of contests, festivals, and tournaments. Scholastic contests are sponsored by colleges and universities, as are contests or tournaments in athletics, music, debate, stock and grain judging, and other activities. Athletic associations almost universally promote various types of tournaments. Educational groups in such fields as speech, music, and dramatics sponsor contests to exhibit the accomplishments of their pupils. Commercial and civic groups are continuously beseiging the schools to stage various types of contests, festivals, and other special programs. Nearly one hundred state or national firms, patriotic organizations, and others were reported by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in 1941 alone to be sponsoring essay contests in the schools.[5]

Certain types of contests and festivals undoubtedly have merit. Students are interested in competitive activities, and competition can be wholesome and stimulating. Thus intercity music festivals and contests may provide band, orchestral, and vocal groups an excellent opportunity to demonstrate their competence, and at the same time be a musical treat for students and adults. If competition is involved, the adjudication can be

[5] See *ibid.*, pp. 106–108, for a list of these firms.

made positive and helpful for each group. Properly conducted, contests and festivals may be the means of stimulating widespread participation in school activities. However, there are many dangers and difficulties that teachers should understand as they evaluate requests from pupils and from outside groups for these activities.

The following comprehensive list of criticisms of these activities was prepared by the Indiana Activities Committee:

1. School time lost by teachers and pupils from classes for practice and contests
2. Interference with the regular school program by keeping the staff and school in a state of unrest due to the contests or festivals
3. Hazards involved in transporting pupils long distances on crowded highways
4. Pupils being drafted from academic or regular classes for rehearsals and practices
5. Conflicts in schedules necessitate often times the chaperoning of individual pupils back and forth between events of two or three different contests
6. Little uniformity of eligibility for events
7. Frequently too much emphasis upon one department or division of a school
8. The rise to popularity of certain good teachers in a school and community, while equally good teachers go unnoticed because their teaching field does not lend itself readily or easily to publicity or showmanship
9. The use of a pupil or pupils for the personal aggrandizement of a teacher
10. Constant pressure within and without the school for funds
11. School policies often times directed by out-of-school agencies
12. Exploitation and commercialization frequently in certain activities
13. Extra burdens placed upon teachers
14. Outcomes frequently evaluated on false bases
15. The desire to win sometimes developing unethical practices
16. Motivation to educational accomplishment artificial
17. Contests sometimes influencing teachers to work specifically with those pupils known to have winning possibilities at the expense of other members of the class
18. Many contests not professional and not contributing to the objectives and purposes of education
19. Many groups sponsoring activities and contests far removed from the educational picture[6]

PUBLICATIONS

A medium of communication is essential in any organization, and a school newspaper is the common medium of all large schools. Sometimes produced by an elected or volunteer staff and sometimes by the

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 102.

journalism class, the newspaper is a strong factor in unifying school activities and interests. Through the school newspaper information is presented regarding school problems, and polls are taken of student opinion. Publications also give students an opportunity to develop special interests in writing, editing, and other publication operations. Financial support is frequently an obstacle met only by paid advertising or student subscriptions, the latter method, of course, placing an economic restriction on a *public* school activity. The scope of the publications activity is indicated by Spears's estimate in 1941 that American high schools published 5,000 "really good" newspapers, 3,000 yearbooks, and 1,000 magazines, with the circulation of some of these running in the thousands, and the annual bill for publications into millions of dollars.[7]

Other school publications include annuals, handbooks, and school directories, any one of which offers more limited possibilities for school unification and for exploration of individual interests than do newspapers. Handbooks and directories are useful ways of assisting new students in large schools, and annuals, if not planned too largely by commercial producers, offer good outlets for creative abilities.

All school publications are usually sponsored or advised by appropriate faculty members, whose guidance determines whether student activities are primary in these projects. Some papers secure school-wide participation by means of class or homeroom reporters and by systems for obtaining contributions of articles, editorials, and suggestions.

Three national student press associations give considerable leadership in the publications field. These associations and their journals for high school student journalists are (1) The National Scholastic Press Association, founded at the University of Wisconsin as the Central Interscholastic Press Association in 1921, and moved to the University of Minnesota in 1926, *The Scholastic Editor;* (2) the Columbia Scholastic Press Association, founded at Columbia University in 1924, *The School Press Review,* and (3) Quill and Scroll, organized in 1926 at Drake and moved later to Northwestern University, *Quill and Scroll.*

SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

As suggested in Chapter XVI on work experience, the kind of work students may do in school is about as varied as the jobs to be done in a school. Some of these jobs may be done for renumeration, others wholly for service motives, but in either event important learning situations exist. Illustrative of the kinds of service students may perform in school are various examples selected from ninety high schools surveyed by the Educational Policies Commission for its report, *Learning the Ways*

[7] Harold Spears, "Student Publications," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 102, **25**:57 (December), 1941.

of Democracy. Analysis of these examples shows that the following services were provided by the groups indicated:[8]

SERVICE	GROUP RESPONSIBLE
Controlling conduct throughout school	Committeemen responsible to student council
Supervising study halls	Chairmen responsible to student council
Beautifying school grounds	Various committees responsible to student council
Locating needed repairs, and the like	Inspection committee
Operating motion pictures and radio equipment	Mechanics Club
Operating book store	Girls Letter Club (physical education department)
Managing school cafeteria	Cafeteria Service Club
Operating "School Cooperative"	Various departments (home economics, agriculture, and the ke)
Assisting in school library	Library Club
Maintaining bulletin boards	Class and homeroom groups
Protecting student health	Student Health Committee (of student council)
Conducting safety campaigns	Safety Council
Planning school's social program	Social Committee (of student council)
Ushering at public programs	Ushers Club; Courtesy Service Club
Explaining high school to elementary children	Student ambassadors
Tutoring students who need help	National Honor Society members
Preparing handbook for new students	Student committee
Orienting new students to school	Host and Hostess Club; Girls' League

As this list indicates, "service" describes a function of any school organization rather than a distinct type of organization. Thus, these services were performed by subgroups of the student council, independent committees, special clubs, and classroom clubs and other groups. (See Plates 30 and 31). However, various clubs and other organizations frequently exist entirely for service purposes, and thus do represent a distinct type of activity. These service organizations ordinarily meet at whatever times the school schedule provides for out-of-class activity groups; they have elective memberships, finance themselves, and have faculty sponsors

[8] See Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940), pp. 195–223.

or advisers. Their potential significance in the total school program is indicated by the nature of the services rendered in the examples cited.

SOCIAL PROGRAMS

Adolescent students like dances and parties, and the modern secondary school provides opportunities for cultivating these interests in

PLATE 30

ART STUDENTS SERVE THE SCHOOL. Art students in the Springfield, Missouri, Senior High School create poster displays that show school activities. (Courtesy of the Springfield, Missouri, Public Schools)

a wholesome fashion. An increasingly common facility in school buildings is the "social room", fitted for dancing, party games, lounging, and similar activities. Where community taboos permit, students may be given dancing instruction in physical-education classes, or at the noon hour, or at the activity period.

In addition to the social opportunities that may be provided within the school day, schools make varying provisions for after-school affairs such as class parties, dinners, dances, wiener roasts, and camping trips. These affairs are usually planned by social committees representing student organizations or by the school as a whole. Their financing raises difficult problems too frequently resulting in student support and therefore

PLATE 31

PRODUCTION OF A STAGE SET. A senior high school committee at work on the production of a stage set for a Christmas assembly program. (Courtesy Springfield, Missouri, Public Schools)

elimination of less economically privileged students. Faculty members and occasionally parents serve as advisers and chaperones. The social program may be a function of various organizations that, in the larger schools, clear their plans through some central committee or social chairman.

STUDENT COUNCIL

The student council may be an activity paralleling clubs and other organizations, or it may be an effective medium for student participation in the operation of the school's program. A study of the purposes of student councils in 160 Michigan high schools showed the percentages of principals listing each of five major purposes as follows:[9]

PURPOSE	PER CENT
1. To develop student responsibility, initiative, leadership, and school pride	93.7
2. To promote worthy citizenship training	69.3
3. To provide for pupil expression	51.2
4. To provide a working model of a governmental unit under which students will live	22.5
5. To promote welfare of the school through proper student-faculty relationship	1.2

As schools have become increasingly concerned about democratic purposes and practices, various plans and organizations have been adopted to give students a larger part in school government. Studies made by the National Association of Secondary School Principals indicate that about 80 per cent of secondary schools, especially the medium-sized and larger schools, have some type of student council organization. The considerable amount of related literature (see "For Further Study" at the end of this chapter) reflects this interest and also reveals the great variation in the functions, organization, and effectiveness of student councils.

In many states some type of state organization of student councils exists to promote student-council activities. City school systems frequently have city-wide councils to coordinate activities of all school organizations. There are several regional associations, and the National Association of Student Councils (sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals) exerts national leadership in this field.

In schools where the leadership fails to appreciate the potentialities of student organization, the student council may be responsible only for routine duties such as lost-and-found bureaus, monitoring, and safety patrol. In such schools, office holding is likely to become a sort of popularity contest.

In other schools more concerned about really democratic practices, the student or school council is the representative body of school government. Vital student affairs, including the control of student conduct, are managed. Here all student activities are unified by committees or other

[9] "The Student Council in the Secondary School," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 124, **28**:17 (October), 1944.

organizational plans. The council advises with the school administration on all school plans, and shares in responsibility for the success of plans made. Membership on the council is a responsibility as well as a privilege, and elections to the council and its offices are so conducted that review of the qualifications of candidates is assured. The council has a place in the school program and schedule, and in some cases school credit is provided its members. The operation of school government and its representative body is controlled by a constitution that is subject to revision by the student body. Provision is made for the entire student body, in homerooms or classes, to consider matters brought before the council, and use of the initiative and referendum is common.

An illustrative constitution is the following from West High School, Denver, Colorado:

PREAMBLE

We, the students of West High School of Denver, Colorado, in order to give the students a practical knowledge of democracy by instituting self-government in West High School, to bring about a better cooperation between the students and their teachers, to promote the general welfare of the student body, and to establish higher standards of character, leadership, scholarship, and school spirit, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the Student Council of West High School.

ARTICLE I. NAME, PURPOSE, AND MEMBERSHIP

1. The name of this organization shall be The Student Government of West High School.

2. The purpose of the Student Government is to provide, through student government, a maximum opportunity for student participation in student affairs, in order to promote the welfare of the school, and to acquire experience and efficiency in the practice of democracy.

3. The Student Government Class shall consist of twenty-six members, serving as representatives from the various classes. The Senior Class shall have seven members; the Junior Class, six; the Sophomore Class, five; and the Freshman Class, four. The Head Boy and Head Girl head the class and the Editors of the Rodeo and Annual serve as ex-officio members. Students wishing to serve on the Council must have a C average and have petitions signed by fifty students. They are elected by their respective classes and serve on the Council for one year.

4. The faculty Sponsor shall be appointed by the Principal of the school.

ARTICLE II. OFFICERS AND DUTIES

1. Officers of this organization shall be President, Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer.

2. The duties of these officers shall be as follows:

A. *The President*—shall be Head Boy; shall preside at Student Council and Student Interest meetings; shall be responsible for carrying out

the purpose of the Student Council; and shall be the representative of West High-School students in any interschool student conference.

B. *The Vice-President*—shall be the Head Girl and shall discharge all official duties of the President in his absence, at any time he may be out of the Chair, or during a vacancy in his office.

C. *The Secretary*—shall keep all records of absences from Student Council meetings; shall keep a record of meetings for future reference; and shall tabulate votes at elections.

D. *The Treasurer*—shall make a semester report of all expenditures; shall, with the Sponsor's sanction, be responsible for the paying of all debts incurred by the Student Council

ARTICLE III. ELIGIBILITY FOR OFFICERS

1. The Head Boy and Head Girl must have been members of either the 11A or 12B classes at the time of their election.

2. The Head Boy and Head Girl must have attained a 4.0 average in citizenship and scholarship for the preceding semesters.

3. The Student Interest Committee, acting as nominating committee for Head Girl and Head Boy, shall post the names of the candidates after receiving the approval of the administration. After a week of publicity, the candidates are introduced to the students of the school. In turn, they each make a speech, and everyone returns to his third-hour class to vote for his choice.

ARTICLE IV. ACTIVITIES

1. Student Council shall cooperate in administering any policy adopted by school administration for the student body.

2. It shall present at least one assembly program each semester.

3. It may sponsor campaigns during the year for the improvement of student attitudes.

4. The Student Council has charge of all drives and campaigns held in the school. Other activities include the presentation of the "Hi-Pard Day" every fall, which is a get-acquainted day for new members.

5. The Student Council has five members on the all-city Interschool Council. They are the Head Girl, Head Boy, one member of the Rodeo, and two others elected from the Student Council. The Sponsor of the Interschool Council is a faculty representative.

ARTICLE V. MEETINGS

1. The meetings of the Student Government Class shall be held every day at a regular class period. Special meetings may be called by the Sponsor or the Head Boy or Head Girl.

ARTICLE VI. STUDENT INTEREST COMMITTEE

The Student Interest Committee shall be composed of the Head Boy, the Head Girl, President of the Senior Class, Vice-President of the Senior Class, President of the Junior Class, Vice-President of the Junior Class, President of the Sophomore Class, President of the Freshman Class, President of the National

Honor Society, Editor of the Annual, Editor of the Rodeo, Sponsor of the Student Council, Assistant Principal, and the Dean of Girls.

ARTICLE VII. COMMITTEES

There shall be as many committees as are deemed necessary by the Council, Sponsor, or Principal, to represent adequately the Student Council in school activities.

ARTICLE VIII. VOTING

1. Voting shall be done from the floor, except when secret ballot is deemed necessary by the vote of the Council.

2. A majority vote of the membership of the Student Council shall be necessary in all decisions made by that group.

ARTICLE IX. AMENDMENTS

1. Amendments to this Constitution may be made only after discussion before the entire Student Council, and by a majority vote of the membership of the Council.[10]

The 1944 study by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, *The Student Council in the Secondary School,* is an excellent source of information on the programs as well as the purposes and organization of student councils. Projects reported as being sponsored most frequently by student councils included the following:

School dances
Assembly programs—all or certain programs
Aid to Board of Education—in raising funds for materials and equipment and in protecting property
School publications
School Cafeteria—maintenance of order; advising on management
Student Day—students exchange places with teachers and administrators
Student assistance—various types of service projects
Honor study halls
Youth conferences—on youth problems
Various types of special days
Ushering
Recreation room
Student employment bureau
Special campaigns and drives
Safety practices
Lost and found exchanges[11]

OTHER ACTIVITIES

Many other out-of-class activities may exist in a particular school. Dramatic presentations may be the product of classes in dramatics

[10] *Ibid.,* pp. 57–58. See Chapter III of this *Bulletin* for several other illustrations.

[11] *Ibid.,* pp. 163–175.

or English, or of the Dramatics Club, or of independent groups organized by the dramatics teacher or coach for each play. Debates, too, may be sponsored by the Debating Club or the debating class or by teams chosen through tryouts. Music programs—concerts, festivals, operettas, contests, pageants—are very popular both with school and community groups, where facilities permit, and offer opportunity for wide participation by students. These events and programs may be sponsored by music classes or clubs or independent groups organized by music teachers.

The library is an out-of-classroom situation that most logically is merely a place for extending classroom interests. Despite long disagreement among school workers as to the relative functions of classroom and central libraries, it is clear that some type of central collection and accounting is essential. The library, properly organized, staffed, and supplied, is a rich reservoir of material that students consult for information and for interest. Unfortunate practices in scheduling and in regulations regarding absence from study hall and classroom, as well as restricted facilities, frequently prevent full utilization of the library learning situation. Increasingly, however, schools are providing larger libraries, more and better materials, and more freedom for students in the use of the library. Generally students are given some instruction in the use of the library through the English classes or orientation programs, and teachers and librarian work together closely to insure that the library is an integral part of the curriculum.

Various commencement activities have traditionally consumed a considerable amount of out-of-class time in the secondary schools. As these activities have come to be regarded more as learning situations and less as exhibitions, however, classes, clubs, and other groups within the schools have used the commencement season as a time for culmination of various projects undertaken in the regular school program.

The Needs of Youth and Out-of-Class School Activities

Out-of-class school activities have assisted schools in meeting the needs of youth more adequately when they serve as an approach to improvement of the total school program. They may also make direct contributions to needs that we can characterize as special interests and as cooperative action.

AN APPROACH TO IMPROVING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

As we pointed out in Chapter XII, a common method of improving the curriculum has been that of adding new subjects and activities. The history of the extracurricular movement shows that each expansion of out-of-class activities has been in response to some need for modifying or enriching the curriculum. Spears contends that "the student activity movement has represented a revolt against the traditional cur-

riculum and classroom procedure" and that the revolt came from pupils: "while authorities were setting out studies difficult enough to assure a sound education for the pupil, the latter was developing activities more to his liking."[12] He identifies three periods in the movement: (1) "toleration"—no opposition or encouragement of nonclassroom activities of pupils; (2) "recognition"—encouragement given to the expanding program of activities; and (3) "merger"—acceptance of the point of view that the curriculum includes *all* school activities.

PLATE 32

USING THE LIBRARY IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL. Adequate space, light, and books are essential. (Courtesy of the Battle Creek, Michigan, Public Schools)

It is significant that modern principles of curriculum planning agree largely with the following characteristics of an organized program of activities previously considered extracurricular:

1. The activities are based on interests of students.
2. They are organized and conducted by group planning.
3. Varied procedures and resources are employed in the program.
4. A close relationship to the life of the community is emphasized through activities related to community interests and adult occupations.

[12] Harold Spears, *Secondary Education in American Life* (New York: The American Book Company, 1941), p. 154.

Such a program does not imply that in the modern school all out-of-class school activities are eliminated. On the contrary, the distinction between what happens in and out of class is eliminated. The process ordinarily includes these steps: (1) various out-of-class activities organized by students achieve some success in following student interests and satisfying student needs; (2) either subsequently or simultaneously, teachers begin to modify classroom instruction to include some of the procedures and principles, such as those of group planning or firsthand experience, of out-of-class activities; (3) in order to remove the non-credit or after-school or other restrictive influences, out-of-class activities are placed on an equivalent basis with subject classes so far as the schedule and credit are concerned; and (4) activities for special-interest purposes are organized through core curriculum or other general-education classes so that duplications in clubs and other organizations are eliminated and so that opportunities for everyone to participate in some type of activity of interest are provided.

Few schools have taken this fourth step, although many are experimenting with flexible core curriculums and are finding decreasing need for special out-of-class organizations. Most schools have taken the first and second steps and are now concerned with resolving the credit and schedule problems by placing as many activities as possible on a subject basis and the remainder within an activity period.

RELATION TO SPECIAL INTERESTS

The out-of-class activity movement was originaly motivated by student interests that were not being served in classroom instruction, and they still provide more widely for student interests than do usual subject classes. Since these interests vary greatly with respect to such common needs as occupations, health and physical fitness, aesthetics, and leisure activities, there are needed special-interest groupings, whether in or out of class.

Special interests in regard to occupations may be promoted through several features of the out-of-class program. Work projects in school and community, as described in Chapter XVI, should be selected in part on the basis of youth interests. Many types of out-of-class activities have direct relationships to adult occupations and may be organized by students because of occupational interests: publications; music; clubs, such as photography, radio, aviation, agriculture, homemaking, and business education. Assembly programs are used effectively for occupational guidance with the aid of specialists and films presenting various occupations. The particular offices or assignments students take within their club organization may also have prevocational significance: business manager, treasurer, solicitor, salesman, secretary, clerk, promotion or publicity chairman, and so forth.

The choices students make regarding voluntary health and physical activities may also be determined by special interests, provided that there is sufficient variety of games and sports to conform to varying physical capacities. Similarly, boys and girls may find opportunities suited to their aesthetic interests in the student organizations relating to art, music, nature study, and literature, although these areas are increasingly a common concern of classroom instruction, with full use made of available resources in and out of class. All these and other leisure-time interests have consistently dominated the out-of-class program, although the traditional school does not make time provision for all students to enjoy leisure within the school. Longer school days, activity periods, and expanded recreational facilities, however, give a steadingly increasing number of boys and girls opportunity to develop wholesome and persistent leisure interests in school.

RELATION TO COOPERATIVE LIVING

Students may satisfy their and society's need for skill in the various phases of cooperative living in every kind of activity that involves groups of people living and working together. The social program of the modern high school is managed so that adolescents of various sexes, races, and backgrounds may participate on equal terms in dances and parties. Thus good boy-and-girl relationships, for example, are fostered rather than prohibited by the school.

The most commonly claimed value of out-of-class activities is the opportunity they present for the practice of democratic principles of government. Although this is a sad commentary on classroom instruction, it is undoubtedly true that out-of-class activities have characteristically been more democratically organized than classroom activities. In fact, they have at times been motivated by the students' desire to have some school program of their own to offset the teacher-dominated classroom.

Practices such as these in out-of-class activities seem wholly consistent with the need of students for experience in democratic government:

1. Election of officers by the group
2. Election or appointment of committees responsible to the group
3. Review of qualifications of candidates for office
4. Adoption and following of constitutions and bylaws subject to revision by the group
5. Responsibility of designated representatives to the group represented
6. Use of publications and other means of communications to present differing points of view

Cooperative action requires use of the scientific method of thought and procedure and of effective communication skills. Students who are not told by teachers and principals ready-made solutions to their problems

have to collect information and reach studied conclusions. Clubs and other organizations operated by and for students give particularly good opportunities for developing habits of clear expression, since in them boys and girls must learn to direct their remarks to a group rather than to just one person, as in the recitation. They must also learn to listen to reports, announcements, and assignments if they are to be effective members of the group. These discussions, carefully guided by student chairmen to secure wide participation without monopoly by a few members, are excellent situations for practice in showing respect to other persons—to their opinions, statements, and contributions.

Organizing School Life Effectively

Can you carry on a conversation successfully, understanding well the ideas of someone else and communicating your own ideas clearly? If so, where did you learn to do this? At home, in the classroom, in clubs, or in community activities? The chances are you cannot possibly point to any one learning situation where you acquired conversational or any other generalized skill, or understanding, or attitude. The ways in which we carry on most life activities result from many experiences. It is rather futile, therefore, to organize a school program on the assumption that some one activity will of itself assure the acquisition of some needed skill, understanding, or attitude.

A more effective approach is to organize a range of activities sufficient to provide a maximum amount of learning situations having potential contributions in the areas of need. In such an approach it is relatively unimportant whether particular experiences of potential value occur in or out of the classroom, but highly important that they do occur. Since various activities described earlier as out-of-class have considerable potential value, plans for a particular school program should insure their inclusion as far as is practicable.

OVER-ALL PLANNING OF OUT-OF-CLASS AND CLASS ACTIVITIES

Suppose we assume that the high school in which you will teach is neither exceedingly traditional nor progressive. Its total program would probably be based on the usual subject curriculum as described in Chapter XI, with perhaps a few experimental courses included; it would have a student council, a club program, and the other types of out-of-class activities described in the preceding sections. How would you go about determining whether or not the class and out-of-class activities are adequate and about planning for a more adequate program, if needed? Answers to a number of questions would be essential in such evaluation and action.

Is there adequate opportunity for all the students enrolled to develop a sense of belonging to the school? That is, are there sufficient programs,

means of intraschool communication, and other procedures for developing a unified school organization? The most effective opportunities are generally as follows: (1) a school newspaper that is the product of the entire school, publishing school news and helping to form pupil opinion on basic purposes and issues of the school; (2) assembly programs that ignore distinctions between various school groups and promote group solidarity by group singing, discussion of school-wide concerns, and organization of school-wide action programs, such as campaigns and election; (3) varied productions and events—athletic, social, musical, dramatic—in which many students, and different students for different occasions, have a share. Student and faculty opinion may be checked to determine whether the school's provision for belonging is adequate, and, if considered inadequate, for additional types of activities desired.

Is there adequate opportunity for all students to develop and deepen worth-while individual interests? Various types of interest inventories may be constructed or purchased to secure help with respect to this question. You will wish to determine not only what special interests exist but what provision is made for them. Are the students who are interested in music, art, ping-pong, checkers, aviation, photography, hiking, or camping, for example, given opportunity to develop these interests further in classes? If related classes are not available, can special-interest clubs be organized for students with such faculty assistance as needed? Are both types of provision needed to provide for several social groupings?

Is there an organized method assuring students' participation in school government? The existence of a student council or a constitution for student government does not assure that the student has a share in school government. In evaluating or planning for school government in your school you must consider how much students participate or will participate in all sorts of decisions affecting their welfare; in program planning, including such an evaluation activity as this study we are describing; and in the conduct of activities in and out of class. An adequate participation of youth in school government will include provision for pupil-faculty planning of all elements of the school's program, with all representative bodies responsible to the groups represented.

Are activities in and out of class closely enough related to prevent undesirable duplications and omissions? Answers to the previous questions regarding any typical school would probably reveal the need for reorganizing both the classroom and out-of-class activities. Their relationship can be determined most effectively by proper identification of purpose with activity. That is, all-school activities can probably contribute more effectively to a sense of belonging than can any other type of activity, but each class or club group can serve this purpose by sharing in preparing materials for the school paper and in arranging programs for the auditorium. Special interests may be served by both class and out-of-class

activities; analysis of the interests of the students enrolled as compared with the interests served by existing clubs and classes should give a basis for reorganization here.

To determine neglected needs and unnecessary duplications of effort, a faculty and student body might find valuable a study of the total school program in the light of the ten imperative educational needs. Consideration might also be given to the characteristics of all activities that are regarded as most effective, and to ways of extending such characteristics. If, for example, analysis shows that group planning is a highly effective procedure, more group planning may relate more closely all school activities.

IMPROVING ORGANIZED SCHOOL-WIDE PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS

Various suggestions have already been made or implied in this chapter regarding improvement of assemblies, newspapers, social programs, and school government. We may summarize these suggestions in the following statement of principles:

1. Each new school-wide program or project should grow out of the interests of students, be planned by representatives of the student body, and be accepted by the entire school.
2. Each school-wide program or project should be compatible with the fundamental purposes of the school—that is, related to the educational needs of boys and girls.
3. A maximum number of students should have opportunity to participate in or contribute to school-wide programs and projects.
4. The amount of energy and time devoted to school-wide programs and projects should be in balance with other school activities so that all student needs may be served as fully as possible.
5. School-wide programs and projects should serve community interests so far as these are consistent with those of youth.
6. Units within the school—subjects and core classes, homerooms, clubs—should be able to propose school-wide programs and projects, contribute to their success, and evaluate their outcomes.

IMPROVING SPECIAL-INTEREST ACTIVITIES

Various suggestions have also been made or implied throughout this chapter concerning the improvement of such special-interest activities as physical activities, clubs, service organizations, and others. We may summarize in three statements the major principles that should govern these activities:

1. There should be sufficient variety of special-interest activities to develop and deepen worth-while interests of all pupils.

2. The types of special-interest activities available should be consistent with the possibilities of adult life.

3. The organization of these activities should be sufficiently flexible to permit students to move from one to the other as interests change and to facilitate additions and eliminations in keeping with changes in student population.

SOLVING RELATED ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

The chief administrative problems involved in organizing school life may be considered to be the related items of participation, behavior, schedule, credit, and finance. The authors believe that a proper solution of any one of these problems may also solve one or more of the others. For example, where participation of all students in activities of concern to each is assured, behavior problems are rare. Except for extremely maladjusted students whose problems are too deep-seated for any solution by the school alone, boys and girls rarely present behavior problems of a disturbing nature unless the school is failing to present adequate opportunity for association with other boys and girls, for development of worth-while interests, and for recognition and acceptance by the organization. All these opportunities are available in a balanced school life.

Full participation of students in the life of the school may be prevented by either of these practices: (1) provision of out-of-class activities after school; (2) payment by pupils of the cost of out-of-class activities; (3) emphasis on credit for classroom activities that must be achieved or assured before other activities can be assured; (4) lack of adequate special-interest activities for all students.

This last deficiency may be removed by application of the first principle suggested for special-interest activities. The schedule problem may be solved by (1) incorporating a maximum number of special-interest activities in the classroom program and therefore the school day, (2) placing all assembly programs and similar school-wide social and recreational programs, within the school day, during regular class periods or during an activity period, and (3) using an activity period for special-interest groups, for leisure-time activities in the library, social room, and gymnasium, and for school-wide activities. Time for the activity period may be secured either by substituting it for a study hall (as study becomes a phase of classroom activity, study hall is an increasingly useless learning situation), a class, or part of a core period, or by lengthening the school day. In view of the increasing responsibility of the secondary school, many educators advocate the latter plan.

The problems of credit and schedule are closely related. If the out-of-class activities are scheduled within the school day or are incorporated within the classroom program, there is no credit problem. However, stu-

dents may prefer using the activity period for study to secure credit in a required class than using it for participation in a club. It is particularly inconsistent with a faith in democratic values of schooling to deprive students whose academic marks are low, of participation in activities wherein they may have real interests and may achieve success. The alternative here seems to be a different conception of the class program, so that students will be concerned with intrinsic values and so that these values may be secured through study in the classroom or elsewhere rather than during periods of relative leisure. However, it is probably unwise ever to force all students into using their leisure, although opportunities as numerous and as attractive as possible are provided.

The traditional distinction between classroom instruction and out-of-class activities is indicated by the fact that instruction and frequently textbooks and even pencils and paper are furnished students free, whereas the cost of musical instruments, gymnasium outfits, and even school publications is generally borne by the students. If the activities involving these latter items are integral elements of the curriculum, their cost will have to be assumed by the school, or we shall continue to discriminate in school in favor of the economically privileged. In the absence of public support by tax funds, present methods of using proceeds from school programs, of soliciting funds through subscription, and of raising student funds by anonymous collections are preferable to direct charges to students.

PROBLEM OF THE SMALL SCHOOL

As was pointed out in Chapter VIII, our nation is literally dotted with small village high schools; for two thirds of our high schools enroll less than 200 pupils, and 40 per cent, less than 100. Such small schools simply do not have the facilities of the larger schools for the special-interest offerings in and out of class. There are two few pupils to provide groups large enough to serve the interests that exist, too few teachers to provide leadership in many fields.

In these situations, a few approaches are possible toward providing an activity program. The classes themselves may be organized as clubs to provide practice in organization and to promote social activities. Student and adult activities may be operated during the afternoons and evenings—sports, arts and crafts, motion pictures, dances. Mimeographed publications, as well as printed ones, can serve interests. Assembly programs can be made interesting in any situation by full utilization of pupil talent and community resources. A student-council organization can be developed for a school of any size. Leaders from the community or from upper classes may serve as sponsors of activities in which only a few pupils are interested.

Although such measures as these will help, the fact remains that the

special-interest offering of the small school cannot be as attractive as that of the large. The final answer is the consolidation of small schools (see Chapter VI).

ROLE OF THE TEACHER

Emphasis has been placed throughout this chapter on the importance of the students' own interests and plans in the organization of school life. Acceptance of this emphasis does not eliminate the teacher's role, rather, it makes his role all the more important. A teacher will be the sponsor or adviser of every student organization, and the nature of his guidance will determine to a considerable extent the success of the group.

As adviser to a student group, you will need skill in helping students identify problems, plan programs, evaluate outcomes. Here, as in the class group, you will need tact, patience, and resourcefulness so that, without dictating ends or means, you can help the group move forward. It will be particularly important for you to have some well-developed special interest yourself so that you can be a resource person for others with the same interest. Knowledge through observation or participation in student-government plans, assembly and social programs, and other school-wide programs and projects will be most helpful. The following "tests for a club sponsor" may help you analyze your needs in relation to the direction of specific out-of-class activities:

a. Do you really enjoy associating with boys and girls of secondary-school age?
b. Do boys and girls readily confide in you?
c. Are you keenly interested in the world around you?
d. Are you able to make other people enthusiastic about the things which interest you?
e. Are you an expert in the field of activity represented by this particular club?
f. Are you able to give constructive suggestions of things to do—but not to be annoyed if they are not carried out?
g. Can you guide without dictating?
h. Can you plan systematically, but change your plans as circumstances demand?
i. Are you willing to give time and thought to making the club a success (perhaps foregoing a movie or a game of golf)?
j. Are you interested in all members of your club, regardless of personal attractiveness or social position?
k. Have you a sense of humor—(even when the joke is on you)?
l. Are you able to find your chief satisfaction in pupil growth and not in expressed appreciation of your efforts? [13]

[13] Johnston, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

"The Assembly Program in the Secondary School," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 141, 30:1–227 (November), 1946.
This issue of the *Bulletin* is devoted to a survey of practices in assembly programs in 336 schools with pupil populations ranging from 36 to 10,900.

Committee on Student Activities, "How Democratic Are Student Activities in Our Schools?" *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 96, 25:45–55 (February), 1941.
Reports views of state coordinators on basic principles that should underlie the development of the extraclassroom program.

Edmondson, J. B.; Joseph Roemer; and Francis L. Bacon, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School* (3rd ed.). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948.
See Chapter XII on the homeroom, Chapter XIV on the assembly, and Chapter XVI on the extracurricular program.

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940.
Chapter IV contains many descriptions of out-of-class school activities selected for their democratic aspects.

Johnston, Edgar G. (ed.), "Vitalizing Student Activities in the Secondary School," *Bulletin,* National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 102, 25:1–148 (December), 1941.
Compilation of eleven articles on various phases of the out-of-class school activity program: administration, trips, assembly, contests, festivals, tournaments, and related problems.

Kelley, Earl C., "How Student Government Functions in 448 Schools," *Clearing House,* 19:232–235 (December), 1944.
Reports an inquiry of 448 schools to determine the method of selecting student council officers, the frequency of meeting, the extent of powers of council, and the frequency of veto.

McKown, Harry G., *The Student Council.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1944.
Description and principles of student-council organization. Chapter XIII includes a check list for evaluating student council organization.

Spears, Harold, *Secondary Education in American Life.* New York: American Book Company, 1941.
See Chapters VIII and IX for an analysis of the extracurricular program and its movement into the curriculum.

Strang, Ruth, *Group Activities in College and Secondary School* (rev. ed.). New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.
An excellent discussion of methods of working in groups and of various

types of group activities appropriate for high school pupils as well as college students.

"The Student Council in the Secondary School," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 124, 28:1–236 (October), 1944.
This entire issue deals with the student council; it reports in fourteen articles a survey of student council practices throughout the United States.

XIX SCHOOL-COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

Teachers in secondary schools have at least two important reasons for an understanding of school-community activities. In the first place, the development of community schools or a community-centered curriculum has been a major approach to reorganization of the secondary school curriculum. As Spears states in *The American High School*, the community-school emphasis "represents another significant resource in planning the curriculum of the high school of the future." [1] In the second place, regardless of the over-all curriculum plan, subject or core or community-centered, the community offers a rich learning situation for young people. Whether or not the school is concerned about the guidance of learning outside school does not alter the facts of the matter, namely, that students spend more hours out of school than in and that they are acquiring learnings, good or bad, outside, as well as in, school. As a teacher, you may be able to use these out-of-school experiences effectively in connection with basic educational purposes.

Types of School-Community Activities

Although various bases for classifying these activities are available, we shall examine them from the point of view of purpose. Three levels of purpose may be identified: (1) to give young persons information about the community; (2) to assist community enterprises and purposes; and (3) to direct community improvements.

COMMUNITY STUDY

In his comprehensive study of *School and Community*, Edward G. Olsen describes in detail ten "bridges between school and community," the following seven of which are really methods of community study:

1. Documentary materials about the community, from publishers, governments, civic associations, and business organizations
2. Audiovisual aids about the community: graphic documents—pictorial charts, land-use maps, social-base maps; exhibits; pictures, stereographs; slides and slide films; motion pictures; radio; recordings; dramatics; television

[1] Harold Spears, "The Changing Curriculum," Chapter VII in Hollis L. Caswell, (ed.), *The American High School* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946), p. 124.

3. Resource visitors from the community: speakers for general assemblies; speakers, discussion leaders, consultants for small groups

4. Interviews with individuals in the community

5. Field trips to places of interest in the community

6. Surveys of community structure, setting, processes, time periods, and agencies

7. Extended field studies for specific study of some broad process or problem or for general overview of community life[2]

If you are planning to use any of these methods, you will do well to study carefully the many excellent suggestions made by Olsen. For present purposes, we may note certain common characteristics of the various methods whereby young persons learn about community life.

First, a problem is identified for which use of community resources or study is considered desirable. Such problems are recurrent throughout the school curriculum and at all levels—in social studies, science, core, or specialized subjects. Important problems in nearly every community are

1. How is the community governed? It is not enough for students to learn general principles of government, or even the characteristics of various types of local government. Most of them will continue to live in their communities—will cast their votes (if sufficiently interested) and pay taxes there. They need to know how Blankville is governed—its governing bodies and officials, their functions and responsibilities, and the forces that really make for good or bad government.

2. How does the community serve its residents? Any civics textbook tells of the police, safety, welfare, and other services theoretically provided by communities to their citizens. Young citizens of Blankville need to learn more specifically how the service agencies perform—their machinery, facilities, strengths and weaknesses.

3. How are important local crops or other products produced and marketed? The course in economics may give good background material regarding general economic processes. Yet the young persons in Blankville will be securing their income from the production of wheat or cotton or automobiles or clothing or other products of local industry. They need to see how these products are made or harvested, how they are sold, and how their returns affect local economics and welfare.

4. How are jobs secured? Although general procedures in making applications and in securing personal interviews may help young job seekers, Blankville boys and girls will need to know about working conditions, personnel policies and practices, and employment procedures in Blankville's stores and industries.

A more complete list of suggested problems for study in the community follows:

[2] Reprinted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., from *School and Community*, p. 11, by Edward G. Olsen, Copyright, 1945, by Prentice-Hall, Inc. See especially chapters 4 to 10.

1. Racial and national backgrounds in the community
2. Occupations of the community
3. History and development of the community
4. Health of the community—climatic influences; epidemics; health hazards
5. Health and safety services
6. Housing problems; zoning; population shifts
7. Gardens in the community
8. Recreational facilities and needs
9. Traffic problems and control
10. Protection services of the community
11. Water system; public utilities; transportation facilities
12. Pay rolls (income) of the community
13. Local government and public finance
14. Cultural resources of the community
15. The community's schools

In identifying problems for study, safeguards are taken to insure that (1) the problem is sufficiently specific that directly related information can be secured, and (2) community study is sufficiently economical and efficient, as compared with school resources, to justify its use. That is, there is little reason to interrupt school schedules to take a trip to some downtown office whose functions can be learned as well through reading or discussion at school.

Secondly, the class group must locate the source or sources of information that will provide the type of help desired. Care must be taken to use efficient and economic procedures. A survey is not indicated, for example, unless there is need for a complete picture of recreation or housing or occupations or other social functions, problems, or processes in the community. The group plans a field trip if the use of a resource visitor or interview or printed sources is considered inadequate. Thus the selection of sources of information involves a process of group evaluation of the possibilities and problems of use of various sources.

Thirdly, the group plans for securing the information desired. If documentary materials or audiovisual aids are to be secured from the community library or museum or government, arrangements must be made as to their use; or speakers must be invited, or appointments made for interviews, or detailed plans arranged for surveys or field trips. Planning here involves not only making necessary arrangements but consideration of how the information is to be used. Specific questions to which answers are desired must be noted in advance.

In the fourth place, the information is secured. Materials are studied in the light of agreed-on questions. Speakers are heard on topics requested, or consultants or interviewees are asked questions about which information is desired. Surveys are conducted by some schedule of questions included in a questionnaire or "opinionnaire" or guide sheet for the

students who make an oral canvass. Field trips are organized so that each student has some specific inquiry to make or process to observe. Preliminary agenda are flexible, however, so that students may ask unplanned questions or eliminate planned questions as indicated by the information received.

In the fifth place, summarizing and evaluating sessions are held. Students who were to secure certain information from interviews or source materials make their reports to the group. Class (blackboard) summaries are prepared of common experiences, such as seeing a movie, hearing a speaker, or taking a field trip. Questionnaires are tabulated, and summaries are prepared. At each step the group decides whether the information is adequate or whether additional investigations are needed.

Thus the basic steps in community study are the same as in any other learning situation. The difference lies in the location of the information (community instead of in-school resources) and in the nature of the experience, that is, in the more frequent use of firsthand observation or listening instead of reading.

SCHOOL SERVICES TO THE COMMUNITY

We noted in Chapter XVI that many types of community service rendered by individual students and by school groups had value as work experience, and reviewed briefly some of these types. Whether the motive is service, work, or play, or a combination, various values may accrue both to youth and to the community. Probably the most significant and common is the induction of youth into organized community life. Examination of the many services students render to their community shows that here is an effective bridge for relating the school to community activity and organization.

Since the publication of Paul Hanna's *Youth Serves the Community*, in 1936, a growing body of educational literature on school services has appeared. You may read excellent illustrations of service projects and programs in some of the references cited at the end of the chapter, especially those by Hanna, Pierce, the Educational Policies Commission and Olson. You will find that these projects and programs are of such types as the following:

Preparing and publishing recreational directories
Assisting in community clean-up campaigns
Organizing and conducting garden projects
Producing music festivals for schools and churches
Teaching handicrafts in hospitals
Giving programs for shut-in children
Supervising playgrounds for younger children
Serving as club leaders for younger children
Operating loan libraries

Planning gifts for needy families
Assisting in drives for social agencies
Giving benefit musical concerts
Giving programs at old people's homes
Renovating and making toys for younger children
Services (cooking, child care, and the like) to needy homes in emergencies
Assisting in nursery schools
Teaching church school classes
Arranging public exhibits
Assisting in landscaping projects
Conducting surveys for community agencies
Helping with seasonal harvests
Assisting with community canneries
Assisting in home demonstrations regarding food
Producing community carnivals
Helping in nuisance-elimination campaign (for example, rats)

This list could be greatly extended by including the many wartime services provided by schools and youth groups.

As you read about or observe such projects, you will note great diversity in such factors as groups responsible, relation to school program, and leadership. Most frequently, a project is developed by some class, although the entire school may carry on the same type of project, or some voluntary group may be responsible. In the first instance, the class will be carrying on its project as a part of the instructional program; in the second, the approach is school-wide and probably the students' services are given after school; and in the third, students volunteer for service and may or may not have opportunity to perform these services within the school day and with teacher or administrative help. Leadership in these service projects may be within the school or within the community, or better, there may be joint planning and joint leadership. In some instances students are assigned duties and carry them out without opportunity for exercising initiative, and in others they participate in the planning and modification of their particular duties.

Another somewhat different concept of school service is that of the school as a community center. Actually, some schools, rural schools in particular, have long been community centers, as they served as community meeting places, election polls, recreational centers, demonstrations of advances in homemaking, farming, and child care, and for immunization clinics. In recent years urban schools, too, have taken on such functions, although here competition from commercial amusements is a seriously restricting factor. During the war, the schools served as centers for rationing, collections of scarce commodities, and various other emergency programs. Any school, however, can serve its community (1) as a meeting place for community groups, (2) for organized and unorganized instruction in whatever areas facilities are available, and (3) for

recreation in the pool, gymnasium, arts and crafts room, or on the playground. Unfortunately, these uses have too frequently been in the evenings for adults only. Schools are now increasingly opening their facilities to young persons and adults at all times with appropriate opportunities for both, in order to break down the artificial distinction between a "school for youth" and a "community for adults." Thus a political meeting may be as vital to young persons as to adults, but some sports of interest to adults and others to young persons. A real community center is a place where all community groups may follow common interests as well as those that are specialized by age.

COMMUNITY-IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS

Most, if not all, service projects are efforts to improve community life, and of course an ultimate aim of community study—indeed, of education—is community improvement. Yet some programs and projects are initiated and executed by the schools to improve the community, whereas those just reviewed are primarily to assist current community enterprises. To illustrate these direct action programs, descriptions of two rural schools are presented in this section.

Holtville High School, Deatsville, Alabama. Perhaps the best-known example of a community school is that of the Holtville High School. Its program has been described rather fully in *Learning the Ways of Democracy* and *The Story of Holtville,* and in other professional publications, and has also received attention in popular magazines. [3] Some of the features of the program, as observed firsthand by one of the authors and as described in these sources, are identified in the following paragraphs.

The Holtville High School, a consolidated school enrolling about 500 pupils (350 in grades seven to twelve), nearly all of whom are brought to school by bus, is located in a rural community in the open country. It has become truly a center for community life of the people of that region. Working with a community council of farmers, the school has undertaken to provide services and to create enterprises that contribute to the improvement of community living. In so doing, it is able to offer its pupils a broad educational program that will enable them to become better citizens of the community as well as to serve their own immediate needs more adequately.

An example of this broad type of community service and educational program is found in the preservation of meat. Formerly the community had no adequate method of preserving meat, with the result that about one fourth of it spoiled, and the diet of the people was largely limited to

[3] See, for example, "Democracy in U. S. Schools," *Life,* **10**:68–71 (Jan. 13), 1941, and Carol Hughes, "The Town That Students Saved," *Coronet,* **23**:95–98 (January), 1948. The most complete source is Whilden Wallace, James Chrietzberg, and Vermer M. Sims, *The Story of Holtville* (Deatsville, Alabama: the authors, 1944).

cured ham and salt pork. With the support and cooperation of the citizens of the community, the school constructed a small meat processing plant that is equipped to slaughter animals, freeze the meat, and place it in lockers or cure it. This plant is supervised by a member of the school faculty, and pupils of the school who are interested in learning how to process meat work in the plant under his direction. The families of the community who use this service pay the school a fee, and this revenue is used to buy equipment and pay costs of operation. Now the plant has over 650 customers in the community and processes more than 100,000 pounds of meat a year.

In a similar manner, the school operates a cannery, a feed mill, a chicken hatchery, a dehydration plant, an auto repair shop, and a machine shop. As in the case of the meat processing plant, people of the community may use the services of the enterprises, which are operated by pupils under faculty direction. The pupils are responsible for operation and financial management. A loan library for games has been maintained. A bowling alley was built in the gymnasium, and the gymnasium and alley are available to the public. An archery range and barbecue pit are located on the school grounds.

Other services that have been developed at Holtville include the publication of a weekly newspaper, the management of a cooperative store and of a bank for student funds, the operation of a barber shop and beauty parlor, and printing of handbills, forms, and yearbooks for the community as well as the school. The complete list of groups and activities available to pupils as presented in *The Story of Holtville* makes no distinction between classes of the usual types and the various services, projects, and groups. The average student participated in as many as 10 of these groups throughout the year, and in grades nine to twelve might choose from the entire list of 119, although only five years earlier (1938) —before the community school program was initiated—the pupil was restricted to 4 or 5 of the 23 subjects offered and to 2 of 9 possible extracurricular activities.

The complete list of groups and activities in 1943 is as follows:

1. Current events
2. Barber shop
3. Crafts
4. Refrigeration
5. Electricity
6. Nutrition
7. Glee Club
8. World history
9. Home economics I
10. Home economics II
11. Home economics III
12. Typing
13. English
14. Algebra I
15. Algebra II
16. Journalism
17. Literature
18. F.H.A.
19. First aid
20. Dance class
21. Speech choir
22. Chemistry
23. Plays
24. Biology

25. Sewing crafts
26. General science
27. Personal service
28. Health
29. Student (NYA)
30. Physical education (girls)
31. Physical education (boys)
32. Canning
33. Practical mathematics
34. Business arithmetic
35. Photography
36. Recreation group
37. Library group
38. Band
39. Planning committee
40. Speech class
41. Junior speech
42. Sanitation
43. Shorthand
44. 4–H Club (girls)
45. 4–H Club (boys)
46. Banking
47. Junior journalism
48. Church group
49. Auditorium group
50. Store
51. Bookkeeping
52. French
53. Defense council
54. Airplane group
55. Survey group
56. American government
57. Mechanical drawing
58. Junior homemaking
59. Football
60. Orchestra
61. Personal relationships
62. Council
63. Auditing
64. Agriculture I
65. Agriculture II
66. Agriculture III
67. Agricultural mathematics
68. Basketball
69. Hatchery
70. Lettering
71. Spelling
72. Art
73. Programs and shows
74. Printing
75. Spanish
76. Repair work
77. Sewing club
78. Reading group
79. Scrapbook group
80. Salesmanship
81. Alabama government
82. Woodwork
83. Radio
84. Physics
85. Plane geometry
86. Track
87. Office practice
88. Sociology
89. Commercial law
90. Oratorical contest
91. Cheer-leading
92. F. F. A.
93. Garden group
94. Weaving
95. Pottery
96. Posture class
97. Piano
98. Mechanics
99. Plumbing
100. Movie operating group
101. Farm machinery
102. Dramatics group
103. Guiding
104. Junior pre-flight
105. Pre-flight
106. English readers
107. Telephone
108. Dental clinic
109. Material bureau
110. Woodwork (NYA)
111. Machine shop (NYA)
112. Auto mechanics (NYA)
113. Girl Scouts
114. Shop mathematics
115. H. B. I.
116. Observers' club
117. Debating group
118. Lunchroom
119. Latin-American history[4]

[4] Wallace and others, *op. cit.*, pp. 32–33.

Lake Vocational High School, Lake, Mississippi. The following description of how a small high school in another southern community effected real improvement in rural living is quoted in *Improving the Quality of Living*, a compilation of accounts of twenty-two community-school programs in the southern states:

COWS, COTTON, AND COOPERATION

The program of vocational agriculture and home economics which has improved the quality of living in the village of Lake, Mississippi, began in 1934 when the present teacher of agriculture in the Lake Vocational High School began his tenure. He led some of the other teachers in making a brief community survey, which revealed these needs: (1) the entire community was planting a poor variety of cotton; (2) no cover crops were being planted; (3) there were very few cows, and no purebred stock; (4) three gins were operating within a radius of four miles, ginning wet green cotton, and damaging the grade and staple; (5) an inadequate amount of food was being preserved for winter use; (6) there was a deficiency of milk because of lack of cows.

The village of Lake has a population of about 300 people, and the consolidated rural high school enrolls about 110 pupils in grades seven through twelve. On a campus of thirty acres are two brick buildings, a frame gymnasium, a community cannery and freezer locker plant, and a vocational agriculture building which includes a farm shop equipped with both hand and power tools.

The school program was shaped according to the needs revealed by the community survey. The first year's program was planned around cotton improvement, cover crops, livestock improvement, and diet improvement. Evening classes were held in five neighborhoods with an enrollment of 130 adults and several high school boys and girls. As a result of these classes forty-three farmers planted cover crops that fall, and in the following spring thirty-four farmers planted the adopted variety of cotton.

During the second year of the program 153 farmers enrolled in the evening classes. Forty per cent of the cotton planted during the second year was of the adopted variety, 600 acres of winter cover crop were planted, 100 acres of pasture land were improved, and ten beef herds were started. In addition, 985 acres of land were terraced.

By the end of four years every farm in the school district was planting the adopted variety of cotton, and some cover crop. At the present time there are seventy-five herds of beef cattle, with more than fifty heads each, and many smaller herds, all using good type registered bulls. There are ten herds of registered swine.

As the variety of cotton was changed in the community, not only was the yield per acre higher, but the price per pound was also increased because of the better staple. When the farmers realized that the quality of the ginning was damaging the staple of their cotton, they formed a cooperative under the leadership of the agriculture teacher and built their own gin. The improved quality further increased the price of the cotton. The gin cooperative also handles fertilizer, seed, and feed for its members.

In 1941 a bean growers' association was organized in the Lake community.

Through careful planning and cooperation, it was found that enough beans could be raised for buyers to come to the village to bid on the crops. This brought the farmers added income during a season when the cotton farmer had little else to do.

In 1943 the school board built a canning plant on the campus as a part of the war food program. This provided the opportunity for a great increase in the amount of food processed for home use. During the year 1945 there were more than 100,000 No. 2 cans of fruits, vegetables, and meats canned by 300 families in the community. A frozen food locker was installed in a building adjacent to the cannery in 1945. During the first six months after its operation there were more than 4,000 pints of vegetables and fruits frozen and more than 25,000 pounds of meats frozen or cured.

Under the leadership of the agriculture and home economics teachers, the school now has a good lunchroom. Vegetables, fruits, and meat are processed in the cannery and food locker for lunchroom use during the year.

The boys in the agriculture classes and the girls in the home economics classes get a great deal of experience in the school shop, cannery, and locker plant. Each boy and each girl develops home projects under the leadership of the teachers with the cooperation of their parents. This program seeks also to develop poise, self-assurance, and dependability as a part of the pupil's personality.

During the war training program more than 200 out-of-school youths and adults were trained in the school shop for war industries.

The facilities other than the cannery and locker plant are used regularly by the community for activities of the Parent-Teacher Association, the Community Club, Masonic dinners, the Garden Club, and evening classes. The program is marked by community cooperation on the part of adults toward the school and on the part of the school, both teachers and children, toward the community program.[5]

These illustrations report practices that have been widely employed, although not so comprehensively in individual schools, in rural communities. In urban communities, certain schools have also attempted community improvement by providing school facilities for recreational, educational, and work projects. Later in this chapter an illustration of an "all-day neighborhood school" in New York City is presented. Occasionally, urban schools have taken an active part in such pressing problems as city government, delinquency, and welfare. For example, some years ago high school pupils in Des Moines, Iowa, drew up and circulated a petition in the city for a change to the city-manager form of government. Regardless of the locality and of the phase of community life attacked, certain characteristics underlie all successful community improvement programs:

1. Concern for meeting important needs. It is quite possible to plan many types of programs that will get young persons out into the com-

[5] W. K. McCharen, *Improving the Quality of Living: A Study of Community Schools in the South* (Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948), pp. 29–31.

munity but that have no fundamental effect on community life. For example, school and community beautification programs are sometimes so overworked that students simply take on functions that should be performed through the home or city rather than through school supervision. The real test of a clean-up or beautification program is whether it results in the development of community attitudes and practices that will maintain a clean and beautiful community.

2. Cooperation (even though there may also be opposition) of community groups in the program. Young persons in school cannot by their efforts alone develop a permanent community improvement. As indicated by these examples, the school can, however, serve an important coordinating function by bringing together all the groups interested in dealing with a specific problem. Thus the problem of recreation for teen-aged students in one community brought together under school auspices representatives of service clubs, the Y M C A, Y W C A, the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Civic Recreation Commission, other organizations, and the schools.

3. Goals (not necesarily complete solutions of the problems) that are attainable. Thus, the organization of a community college might be a highly desirable development in a community, but not one that students by their efforts alone could attain. Students can, however, act to impress on the public their interest in such an institution by making and publicizing surveys of their interests in college, their lack of resources for attending out-of-community schools, and their ideas as to the program of a local college.

4. Important educational values for youth. In addition to the important information acquired in the course of studying these programs, values in terms of ways of working and attitudes accrue. The experiences of attacking a problem and arriving at a solution, of participating with adults in action concerning adult problems, and of making actual physical improvements in the community are of real significance to adolescents.

The Needs of Youth and School-Community Activities

AN APPROACH TO OVER-ALL CURRICULUM REORGANIZATION

Like work-experience and core-curriculum programs, an organized program of school-community activities is a procedure for over-all curriculum reorganization. The authors know of no school in which the leadership has decided that the traditional program is inadequate and therefore abandoned that program and immediately and successfully began operation of a community school with a community-centered curriculum. We do know, however, of several schools in which the leadership was dissatisfied with the school program and began its improvement through gradual inclusion of more school-community activities. Also, one

of the authors was associated with a school (Norris, Tennessee) that began its program on a community-centered basis. This school was the physical center of recreational, religious, and educational activities, and from the beginning curriculum planning gave great emphasis to community resources and problems.[6] Thus in general the school-community approach may be used in curriculum change by gradual reorganization in existing schools through increased use of school-community activities, and, in new schools, by original planning of the curriculum in terms of the community.

Comparison of the Holtville School, for example, with a traditionally organized rural high school leaves little doubt that the former meets boys' and girls' educational needs more adequately. At Holtville there is adequate opportunity to develop varied salable skills, to practice democracy, to learn firsthand of home and family and consumer problems, to participate in school-operated leisure activities, and to develop skills of cooperation and communication in everyday living. This school's program seems to exemplify extremely well the fundamental functions of a community school, which, as stated by Olsen, are to:

1. Evolve its purpose out of the interests and needs of the people.
2. Utilize a wide variety of community resources in its program.
3. Practice and promote democracy in all activities of school and community.
4. Build the curriculum core around the major processes and problems of human living.
5. Exercise definite leadership for the planned and cooperative improvement of group living in the community and larger areas.
6. Enlist children and adults in cooperative group projects of common interest and mutual concern.[7]

Few schools can or probably should become "Holtvilles," but most or all schools can take steps to implement some or all of these principles. Whether purposes are evolved from needs, or whether community resources are utilized, and whether democracy is practiced in the subject or in the core or in the community-centered curriculum would seem relatively unimportant so long as these steps are taken to meet more adequately the educational needs of youth.

A LABORATORY FOR PROBLEM SOLVING

One of the saddest commentaries on the traditional school curriculum is its complete detachment from the everyday problems of community living. Many of its studies are unrelated to community ac-

[6] See Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum* (New York: American Book Company, 1940), Chap. IX, for a description of the Norris Community School.

[7] Reprinted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., from *School and Community* (p. 11) by Edward G. Olsen. Copyright, 1945, by Prentice-Hall, Inc.

tivities, and even in others there is too infrequent perception by students of the relation of textbook solutions to actual community problems. For example, we find the rural general science class laboriously memorizing the methods of water purification in cities with no attention to the grave health problems of the rural water supply; the civics class of a metropolitan center reading about government functions without conscious identification of what they read with the policemen, firemen, street cleaners, and garbage collectors they see on every street; the history class learning dates and leaders and events in the labor movement without reference to labor organizations and problems in the city. In such schools the ideal laboratory—the community—for study of social problems is not being utilized.

Our imperative educational needs call attention to many problems for which boys and girls will need information. Note in Table 22 some of the typical community institutions, groups, and processes that may be studied directly to secure such information. Although books and the previous experiences of teachers and pupils may help, such sources as these listed are too valuable to be overlooked because of traditional school organization or of administrative problems involved in field trips or interviews or surveys. Here in the community is a rich learning situation in which students may pursue their goals.

PRACTICE IN COOPERATIVE ACTION

As we noted in previous chapters, any school activity may be organized on a cooperative basis. Furthermore, action may be and is taken in classes, in core groups, or in out-of-class school projects. Yet school-community activities offer particularly full opportunities for practicing the type of cooperative action that community groups must and do take for successful community living. The organization of a field trip involves, for example, group planning and assignment of specific jobs, establishment and enforcement of standards of conduct and courtesy, selection of leaders, management of finances, reports of experiences, and evaluation of outcomes. Assisting in a clean-up campaign may involve identification and reporting of unsatisfactory conditions, organization of work groups, consultation of city government and health officials, and publicizing unsatisfactory conditions. Organizing a recreational program may give students experience in investigating community facilities, soliciting funds, negotiating for property and equipment, advertising facilities, supervising young persons at play, and cooperating with various interest groups. The importance of these and other school-community activities in giving youth practice in cooperative action is due to these characteristics:

1. The problems attacked are real.
2. The situations involved are in the community and therefore the

TABLE 22

The Community as a Laboratory

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH	SOME RELATED PROBLEMS	SOME SOURCES OF INFORMATION AND EXPERIENCE IN THE COMMUNITY
1. Salable Skills	Available occupations	Chamber of Commerce; employment service; occupational surveys
	Working conditions	Labor organizations; industrialists
	Work experience	Local industries, businesses, professions
	Specific training	Local industries, businesses, professions
2. Health and Physical Fitness	Health practices	Health department; medical societies
	Available health services	Health department; hospitals; clinics
	Facilities for fitness	Public parks and recreational facilities
3. Citizenship	Government services	Local government officials; courts; municipal utilities; public institutions
	Government and political organization	Local governing groups; political parties and leaders
	Civic obligations	Elections, tax boards, taxpayers' associations
4. Family Life	Relations between sexes	Health workers; juvenile courts
	Successful marriage	Divorce courts; social workers; churches
	Child care	Welfare agencies; nursery schools; homes for children
	Homemaking	Housing projects; markets; surveys
5. Consumer problems	Purchase of goods, services	Consumer and credit organizations; markets
	Use of goods and services	Consumer organizations; demonstrations
	Budgeting	Banks; consumer organizations
6. Science	Conservation of resources	Farms, forests, mines; naturalists
	Electricity and power	Power plants, dams, industries; engineers
	Social effects of science	Psychologists, sociologists, health department
7. Aesthetic Appreciation	Literature	Theatre, libraries
	Art	Museum, exhibits; architects, artists
	Music	Concerts, opera, radio stations; musicians
	Nature	Outdoors; nature clubs; naturalists
8. Leisure activities	Available activities	Commercial facilities; public facilities
	Evaluating activities	Censorship agencies; special interest groups
9. Cooperation	Cooperative organization	Youth and community councils; churches; labor, industrial, business groups
	Intercultural problems	Interracial groups, interdenominational organizations, immigration office
10. Communication	Agencies of communication	Newspaper offices; radio stations
	Participating in groups	Forums; youth groups; civic clubs
	Effective listening	Public lectures, forums, panels

same as, or like, those in which the young persons will ultimately work and live.

3. Group unity is provided by a common background (school) and a common goal (the problem).

4. Definite accomplishment is possible.

Extending and Improving School-Community Activities

SECURING STUDENT AND FACULTY COOPERATION

If your first teaching position is in a rural school, you will be likely to find that school-community activities are already well accepted by students and faculty. Although the school may not be called a community center, it is probably used as one: for discussion of community problems, political rallies and elections, movies, concerts, carnivals, auctions, and demonstrations. Your problem here will not be to relate school and community so much as to find increased resources in an environment limited in all except natural resources.

The urban school is characteristically much less concerned about community study and improvement. Here students are likely to perceive less relationship between what they do in and what they do out of school, and can be expected to develop concern for community affairs only gradually. They will welcome opportunities for field trips and other new means of study, and here is the channel through which many schools become more closely identified with community affairs and problems.

The faculty whose members lack experience in school-community activities cannot be expected to move immediately and successfully into a community-school program. In general, they will welcome suggestions and consultative assistance in improving their teaching. In several schools it has been found effective to organize field trips for teachers to serve a threefold purpose: (1) to give teachers firsthand acquaintance with community institutions and agencies; (2) to develop interests in similar trips for students; and (3) to demonstrate techniques of directing field trips. Such trips are particularly important for new teachers. In recent years many schools in cooperation with local industry have planned "School-Community Days" when all teachers visit the local plants and confer with industrialists.

As a new teacher, you may stimulate interest in community study and improvement through use with your own group of such procedures as those discussed in this chapter. Also, you may be helpful in faculty discussions with your contributions to such questions as these: What problems discussed in our classes can be studied more effectively in the community? What resources are there for study of these problems? How can we make these experiences worth while? How can they be evaluated?

A necessary step in any cooperative venture is that of group dis-

cussion and planning. The wise leader will make sure that every new school-community program or activity is reviewed by the faculty, that plans are agreed on, and that leadership is responsible to the faculty. A community survey or service project may enrich the entire school program if it is reported by the responsible teacher to the faculty and by the responsible pupil committee or class to the entire group.

SECURING PUBLIC COOPERATION

Community opposition is probably the chief obstacle, or at least the one most frequently cited in school situations, to extending school-community activities. Although the public may ordinarily think of education as taking place almost wholly within school walls, there is adequate evidence from successful school practice that the public may not only permit but encourage and assist school-community activities of recognized worth. Where community cooperation exists, such practices as several of those described in the following paragraphs are found.

Through school-community councils representing civic and school groups, plans are made for joint programs. Thus in one community the citizens' school committee decided that health and safety conditions in certain school buildings needed investigation. Arrangements were made for tours of these buildings by representatives of the citizens' group. At the same time school representatives on the committee were asked to have surveys conducted by the pupils. In the schools concerned pupil committees prepared their own recommendations of conditions needing improvement. Reports presented to the citizens' committee by its own representatives and by the pupils were instrumental in the development and financing of a building improvement program.

The facilities of the school are available to the community for all feasible and worth-while purposes, such as public meetings, special group meetings, evening classes and informal activities, and recreation. One of the most significant developments in modern education is the opening of school buildings to the general public. For example, one of the All-Day Neighborhood Schools (Public School 194, Manhattan) in New York City provides the programs described in the following excerpt:

> The Parents' Room is the center of activity for the parents. Here the community worker is available from 10:40 to 5 for special problems, informal talks, committee meetings, planned activities. Through her, the parents have come to consider the school as their school, too. This is evidenced by the steadily growing, constructive work they undertake. They get out the notices for meetings, contact newspapers for publicity on school needs, publish a monthly Parents' News Bulletin. This contains reports on parents' work in relation to the school, announces special adult classes and group discussion meetings in the school, suggests worthwhile activities in matters of interest to parents in and out of school, recommends films and radio programs for children, etc.

Discussions led by competent and trained people have covered such topics as Negro spirituals, hobbies, behavior problems and discipline, movies and radio programs, nutrition. Regular classes for mothers have been organized around parents' interests: a square dancing group was taught by a group teacher; a nutrition series featured marketing, cooking, canning; a grandmother taught crocheting and knitting; a choral group has been led by a former group teacher (now resigned); a local milliner has started a parents' millinery class; the most recent addition is a class in "Slenderizing the Healthful Way" which stresses how to eat well and still keep a good figure.

Successful "Grade Teas" have been held. The teachers in a particular grade invite the parents to a tea in the Parents' Room. In this informal setting there is a relaxed atmosphere that promotes desirable parent-teacher relationship. These teas afford opportunities for parents and teachers to meet together and to discuss specific needs. Here, too, the parents meet others in the school who are concerned with the children—the group teacher, the nurse, the dental hygienist, the principal, the social worker, the community worker. The Tea for the Sixth Year Parents was also attended by the guidance teachers from the neighboring Junior High Schools who oriented the parents to the junior high school.

The evening meetings are planned to attract not only the parent, but others in the community as well. Films and speakers are chosen in relation to the needs of all—nutrition, health, race relations. Parents like to help actively at these meetings—a father brought his quartet and banjo to entertain; the mothers' choral group has sung at meetings recently.

One of the most successful meetings was the Harvest Festival. This grew out of the square dancing class attended by mothers. They prepared a program of square dancing and folk singing and combined this with an exhibit featuring their crafts and needlework and their canning project. Mothers of another All-Day Neighborhood School came as guests.[8]

The school gathers evidence concerning the effectiveness of school-community activities and publicizes its findings. For example, schools may maintain statistics of the number of groups and individuals in the community serviced by agriculture or home-economics or industrial-arts teachers or of enrollment in evening classes, and publish these statistics through the local press. Again, specific community studies or service projects may be described in the press as developed.

The school provides an effective program for interpreting to the public its purposes and procedures, using the press, radio, school publication, discussions, and speeches for this purpose. Good public relations programs rely on no one technique of communication, but use as many and as varied techniques as possible. As a teacher you will be constantly reminded in contacts with parents that the reports taken home by pupils, their reactions to school, and their parents' evaluation of pupil progress are highly important in community attitudes toward school.

[8] New York City, Board of Education, *Extended School Services through the All-Day Neighborhood Schools* (Curriculum Bulletin, 1947–48 series, No. 3; New York: The Board, 1948), pp. 45–46.

Complaints from the community of undesirable practices in school-community activities are carefully investigated and dealt with, and any indicated modifications are made in the program. Teachers frequently disregard or overlook the importance of this principle. Parents are not suspicious of student activities in the community when they feel they can bring criticisms and complaints to teachers, and get courteous investigation and action.

PLANNING AND ORGANIZING ACTIVITIES

Various administrative problems must be dealt with as programs of school-community activities are initiated and expanded. The schedule problem is a frequent obstacle. Field trips, surveys, interviews, and service projects cannot always, indeed cannot usually, be made within a single period. Core classes, of course, have an advantage here; in fact, the flexibility of the longer period is one of the major justifications for the core curriculum. Where the schedule is on the usual six-period a day basis, with all classes for one period only, several possibilities are available to permit individual students or small groups or entire classes to have a longer period for out-of-school activity: (1) use of late afternoons and Saturdays (but this plan penalizes students who work), (2) simple excuses from classes missed (but students object if they have to miss tests or reviews or other activities that affect marks), (3) scheduling of teachers so that teachers' free periods (if any) may be used for excursions, with class groups preceding and following, (4) scheduling of pupils in permanent groups for two or more subjects so that the entire class is absent for excursions during each period missed, and (5) use of study hall or other nonclass periods of pupils for trips in which only one student or a small group takes part. In the final analysis, the real criterion is whether the out-of-school activity is significant enough to justify absence from or elimination of in-school activity; if so, teachers and others concerned should make necessary concessions.

Transportation is a problem in field trips. Increasingly, school buses are used. Where they are not available, use of private cars and public carriers becomes necessary. In either event there are the related problems of finance and liability. When school buses are used there is usually no expense to students; when private cars or public carriers are used, the students frequently pay. As with out-of-class school activities, the public must eventually pay for field trips and other school-community activities, just as it pays for teachers and books, if these activities are valuable and if the secondary school is to be a free institution. To avoid burdens on the economically less-favored youth, funds are sometimes produced on a group basis—either by means of fund-raising programs or campaigns or by means of a fund to which each student contributes privately and on the basis of economic ability.

The problem of legal liability always exists in that any teacher (or other person) is liable for the consequences of negligence. The laws concerning liability of the teacher and the school board vary according to states. The chief generalizations one can make are that: (1) the school may be liable for negligence out of, as well as in, school, and (2) therefore school leadership should take every care to protect students from negligence in out-of-school activities.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHER GUIDANCE

The teacher who ably guides school-community activities must have many skills and knowledges. You may find it convenient to think of the teacher's job in relation to the procedures involved in each of the three major types of school-community activities, since he is responsible for guidance of the group in each procedure.

1. In community study, the procedures include:
   a. Identifying problems for community study—that is, determining what the critical problems of the community appropriate to your group are
   b. Locating sources of information—places to go, people to see, materials to read
   c. Planning to secure the information desired—arrangements for trips or interviews or speakers, questions to answer, group organization
   d. Securing the information—the trips, interviews, or surveys
   e. Summarizing and evaluating the study—written reports, group discussions
2. In school services to the community:
   a. Identifying community needs for school services—surveys of community agencies and of individual leaders who can help in planning
   b. Planning with the community and school leadership concerned, the services—problems of finance, schedules, assignments
   c. Performing the services—organization and supervision of pupil groups
   d. Evaluating the services—determining how many or what was served
   e. Reporting the project to school and community leadership—publications, committee reports
3. In community improvement programs:
   a. Identifying community problems that may be attacked successfully by the school or school groups—surveying pupils' own suggestions
   b. Securing the cooperation of school and community groups—interviews, meetings, committees
   c. Planning the program—organizing, assigning, scheduling
   d. Carrying out the necessary action program
   e. Evaluating the program both for pupils and citizens— what was accomplished
   f. Reporting the program to appropriate persons and groups

This simple analysis does not reveal adequately the complex but challenging role of the teacher. He must be skilled in discussion leadership, competent in group planning, adroit in human relationships, informed concerning community problems and resources.

How is the teacher to acquire these skills? In the first place, preservice education should include some participation in school-community activities. Olsen reported in 1943 a study showing that approximately one third of American teacher-training institutions provided some kind of experience in school-community study.[9] If you have taken such courses, you may have had opportunity to become acquainted with common community agencies and with certain techniques of community action.

The community in which your teacher-education institution is located will probably have many of the following types of organizations you might study, visit, or assist:

Churches
Welfare agencies and institutions (Community Chest, and the like)
Civic organizations
Service Clubs (Rotary Club, and the like)
Women's societies (A.A.U.W., for example)
Community beautification organizations (Garden Club, and the like)
Labor organizations
Business associations (Chamber of Commerce, for example)
Political groups
Youth organizations (Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and the like)
Veterans' organizations
Recreational organizations
Cultural-interest groups (Little Theatre Group, for example)

In the second place, most of the skills required in school-community activities—discussion leadership, group planning, identification of purposes and outcomes—are the same as those required in any other group-learning situations and should become a part of your professional equipment.

In the third place, special knowledges will be required in every community. In some urban districts, you may be given an orientation program designed to acquaint you with community resources. In others you may have an index of excursions or a list of speakers or other printed aids of these types. In any community the professionally minded teacher will identify himself as rapidly as possible with the community by making tours, taking membership in community groups, and by studying local histories, directories and the like, and the local press.

With the help of an exercise devised by Olsen and published in his

[9] See Edward G. Olsen, "National Survey of Teacher Education in Community Study Techniques," *Educational Record,* **24**:421–435 (October) 1943, for description of these programs.

School and Community, you may locate areas in which you may need improvement before you participate in school-community programs. If you will look up pages 339 to 401 of this book, you will find a useful self-appraisal device, "Appraising My Fitness for Work in a Community-Centered Program of Education," which lists items in four areas for appraisal:

1. A Realistic Approach to the Study of Human Relations
2. Effective Thinking and Research in the Social Area
3. Social Participation and Social Action
4. Cooperative Living

FOR FURTHER STUDY

Beggs, W. K., and others, *Community Schools for Nebraska.* Lincoln, Neb.: University of Nebraska Press, 1944.
Discusses the need for community-centered schools and offers suggestions for improved school-community relations.

Bottrell, Harold R., "Opportunities for Community Service," *Junior College Journal,* 18:12–19 (September), 1947.
Reports study of community services in seventy-six junior colleges.

Corey, Stephen M., and others, *General Education in the American High School.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, 1942.
Chapter 8 describes efforts in various communities to build programs designed to meet unique community needs.

Educational Policies Commission, *Learning the Ways of Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940.
See Chapter V for numerous illustrations of school activities in the community.

Everett, Samuel (ed.), *The Community School.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1938.
An important contribution to the thought and literature of secondary education with reference to the community-school concept. Describes in detail specific examples of community schools in urban and rural areas.

Hanna, Paul R., and Research Staff, *Youth Serves the Community.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936.
A study that has been an important stimulus to school-community projects. Includes examples of such projects in fields of safety, beautification, health, agricultural and industrial improvement, civic arts, local history, and others.

Hughes, Carol, "The Town That Students Saved," *Coronet,* 23:95–98 (January), 1948.

Description of the Holtville (Alabama) High School's school-community program.

McCharen, W. K., *Improving the Quality of Living; A Study of Community Schools in the South.* Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948.
Descriptions of twenty-two school programs in the southern states.

New York City, Board of Education, *Extended School Services through the All-Day Neighborhood Schools.* Curriculum Bulletin, 1947–48 Series, No. 3, New York: The Board, 1948.
Description of the program of four schools in the New York City system designated as "All-Day Neighborhood Schools" and aimed to provide closer ties between school and community.

Olsen, Edward G., and others, *School and Community.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945.
A comprehensive treatment of the theory and practice of school activities for community study and service.

Pierce, Paul R., *Developing a High School Curriculum.* New York: American Book Company, 1942.
This description of curriculum development in the Wells High School, Chicago, is a case study of the effort of one school to build its program around the needs of its particular community.

Spears, Harold, *The Emerging High School Curriculum.* New York: American Book Company, 1940.
Chapters IX and X describe school-community programs at Norris, Tennessee; Evansville, Indiana; and Dowagiac, Michigan.

Tyler, Ralph W. (chm.), and others, *American Education in the Postwar Period; Curriculum Reconstruction.* Part I, Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education; Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.
See Chapter X for a description of the community school as a new emphasis in the postwar curriculum.

Wallace, Whilden; James Chietzberg; and Verner M. Sims, *The Story of Holtville.* Deatsville, Ala.: the authors, 1944.
Description of the Holtville School, written as a story of a visit to the school by four persons wanting to learn about the entire school program.

XX GUIDANCE AND OTHER SPECIAL SERVICES

Function of Special Services in Secondary Schools

If every high school teacher could have competency and facilities and time for diagnosing individual problems, for vocational guidance and placement, for education of the handicapped, and for various other specialized fields of education, there would be no need for organized special services. Since this situation does not prevail, the need for some organized special services is universal. Their provision is much less prevalent. The large school usually offers some such service; the small school, little if any—or, more exactly, the wealthier school provides more services than the poorer.

With three fourths of all students of high school age now in school, the school population presents almost every individual problem of human beings. Within the usual class of some thirty pupils, marked variations are found in intelligence, previous schooling, condition of health, occupational aptitudes and interests, plans for further schooling, physical and mental normalcy, and all other characteristics. Figure 11, from *Planning for American Youth,* depicts these differences.

In a democratic educational program, every student will have a curriculum suited to his particular characteristics. Ideally, the teacher would be able to identify these characteristics and help each boy and girl make suitable plans. Actually, few teachers are or can be so qualified, and the school must assist teachers in identifying pupil characteristics and in making suitable plans for each pupil in the light of his characteristics. The means whereby this assistance is given we are defining as "special services." For example, guidance services exist to assist teachers in identifying such characteristics of pupils as intelligence, aptitudes, and occupational interests, and in making suitable plans in the light of this information; health services, in identifying physical characteristics, and so forth. This relationship is shown graphically in Figure 12.

We should note that this concept of special services, especially of guidance, is somewhat different from that frequently presented in educational literature. Many definitions of guidance are almost synonymous with those of education. Although the present authors wholly agree that education is guidance, we are concerned in this chapter with "guidance service"—a much more limited concept, concerned with identifying the needs of individuals and with making appropriate plans for their education.

Programs of Special Services

As noted earlier, organized special services do not necessarily exist in many schools, particularly the smaller and poorer schools. In the

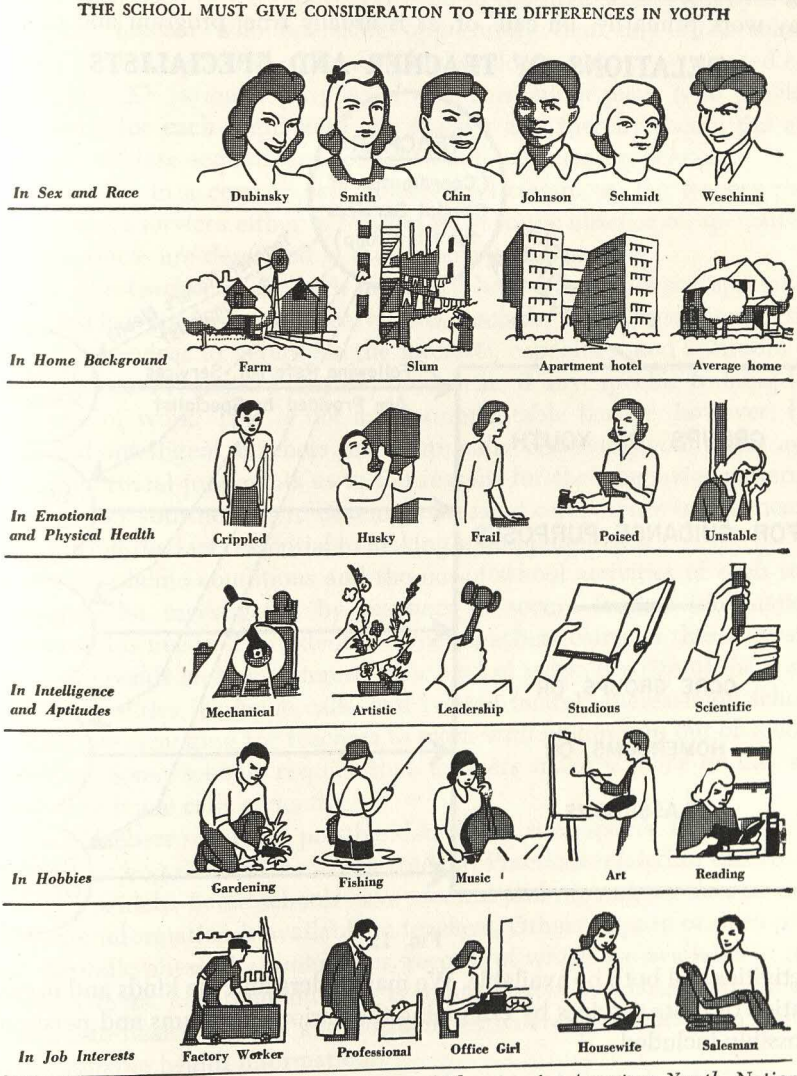

FIG. 11. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES (Courtesy of *Planning for American Youth*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1944, p. 9)

latter the school organization consists of a principal and a number of teachers whose functions include such special services as their competencies and facilities permit. They may or may not be aided by itinerant case workers, nurses, and perhaps other specialists. In the larger and

wealthier schools and school systems, more specialists and special offices will be found. They may work more or less independently or may be coordinated by a director of special services or the principal. They may have regular programs into which students and teachers fit as necessary, or they may work primarily "on call" or, as is usually true, program and on-call

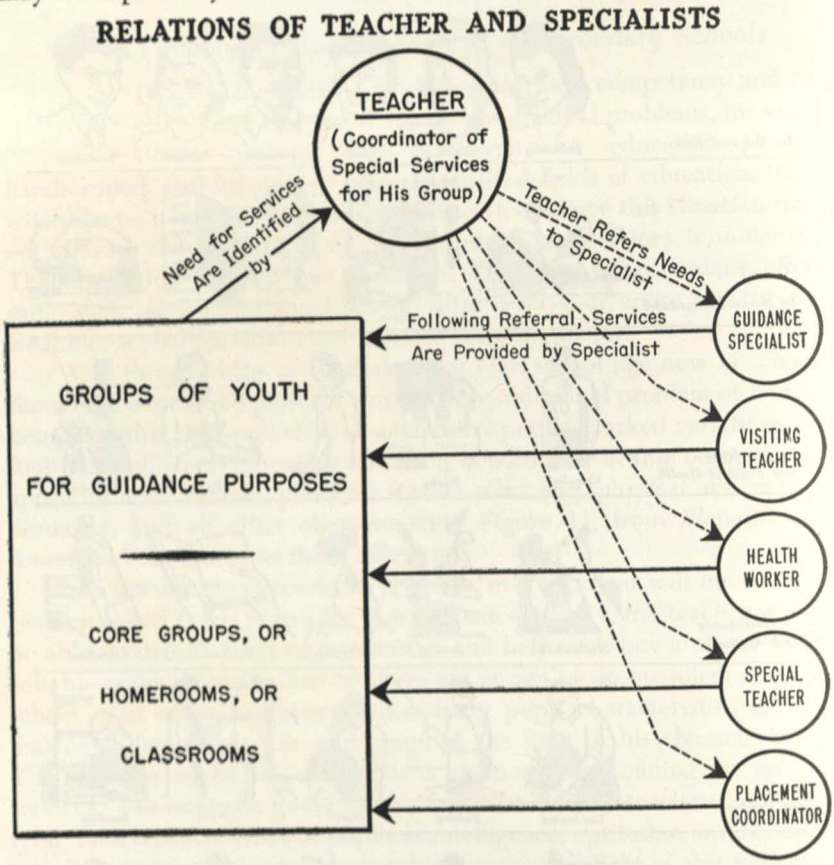

FIG. 12.

activities will both be available. We may understand the kinds and organization of these services by examining the various programs and personnel possibly included.

SPECIAL SERVICES BY CLASSROOM TEACHERS

The primary unit in any organization of special services should be, and usually is, the classroom teacher. In the nondepartmentalized elementary school, the teacher lives with one group of children throughout the school year, and through this personal acquaintance knows more about each student than does any other school worker.

Unfortunately, departmentalization in the high school causes each teacher to teach five or six times as many students, with each of whom he or she spends only about one sixth as much time as the elementary teacher spends with each of his pupils. Yet even in the high school it is still the classroom teacher who has more opportunity than any other school worker to get acquainted with individual students. Also, as we pointed out in Chapter XV, a major purpose of core-curriculum plans is to provide more time for each pupil with one teacher and thereby secure the advantages of close acquaintance common in the elementary school.

Whether in a core or departmentalized classroom, the teacher provides certain services either in relation to, or in the absence of, specialists. These services are described in the following paragraphs:

1. The teacher uses (with necessary help from guidance specialist, if available) conferences, observations, records, autobiographies, tests, and other devices to determine the interests, capacities, and aptitudes of each student. Frequently teachers have little, if any, specific training for this type of work. This is not an insurmountable barrier, however, for alert and intelligent teachers are continually observing youngsters and reaching critical judgments as to the reasons for their behavior patterns. As a teacher your need is to develop increasing competence in the means of acquiring the facts essential to making sound judgments.

2. The home conditions and the out-of-school activities of each student may be investigated by teachers to secure further information regarding his needs. The extent to which teachers carry on these investigations depends on their interest, their load of work, the size of the community, facilities for home calls, and related factors. Increasingly school systems are arranging for teachers to work with children in out-of-school activities. Some schools require that teachers make a more or less set number of home calls annually.

3. Teachers secure all possible data (with such special help as available) regarding the health of each student. Practices related to this function vary widely. Some schools have medical and nursing services so that adequate information is available to teachers. Others require or even provide periodic physical examinations, records of which are available in the school. Others, and their number is unfortunately too large, have most inadequate health records and no facilities whereby teachers can easily secure reliable health information.

4. Teachers plan (also with available help) learning situations and activities most appropriate for each student. This, of course, is the accustomed function of the teacher. However, teachers can, and many do, organize their instructional program with little reference to the unique characteristics of individual youngsters. This is demonstrated most clearly in situations where teachers have almost exactly the same plan and program every day in such a subject as tenth-grade English, for several

classes. In fact, any assignment given an entire class assumes that all students in the group need to do the same work, and needs are rarely that common.

5. Records on each student may be maintained by teachers for use by other school workers, prospective employers, or colleges. In practice this has usually meant the maintenance of records of marks and perhaps of standardized tests to be copied periodically in some permanent record. Increasingly, teachers are coming to regard summaries of conferences with students, records of students' participation in group activities, and notes about significant behavior characteristics of as much importance as marks.

6. Teachers advise individual students regarding their personal problems when the students present them. Teachers are the first persons in school to whom students can talk about their concerns and worries. Unfortunately, schedules frequently make impossible adequate time for such conversations.

7. Teachers may recommend to available school, community, or private specialists individual students requiring investigation or treatment beyond the teacher's resources. This function is significant, since the success of the specialist depends largely on the correct identification and referral of the problem. Teachers must be thoroughly acquainted with the resources available in order to make intelligent referrals.

Thus the classroom teacher is the person primarily responsible for identifying special needs and making appropriate plans, but help from specialists makes possible the sharing of a considerable amount of the responsibility, to the advantage of the individual student, who receives the assistance of both specialists and teacher. The teacher is, or logically should be, the coordinator of special services for the individual members of his or her group.

SERVICES OF THE HOMEROOM ORGANIZATION

The homeroom is an innovation of the past few decades having much the same objective as the more recent core curriculum so far as special services are concerned; that is, to provide a "mother" teacher for a particular group of students. In fact, if the homeroom is so organized that its members feel a group unity and a closeness to their teacher, the authors would agree with a not infrequent opinion expressed as follows by Spears: "Until a more modern conception of the curriculum draws guidance into the work of a core teacher the homeroom will continue as the most promising basic unit of all student activity, both individual and organized, and as the center of proper pupil-teacher relationships, commonly called guidance."[1]

[1] Harold Spears, *Secondary Education in American Life* (New York: American Book Company, 1941), p. 178.

Unfortunately, however, in many situations the homeroom serves purely administrative functions such as announcements and roll calls, and its brief, businesslike nature permits none of the intimate pupil-teacher contacts essential to the guidance or "proper pupil-teacher relationship" function designated by Spears. In many schools the homeroom, once hailed as the antidote for departmentalization, has simply become another segment of a highly segmented schedule and one that is recognized as having primarily administrative functions.

The homeroom, according to one of its chief advocates, Harry C. McKown, is a "regular school period, usually weekly, in which the teacher or sponsor meets with an organized group of students for the purpose of becoming intimately acquainted with the members, and, through individual contacts, and programs and activities, promotes the development of certain personal ideals, knowledges, and habits not now regularly provided for in the teaching of the traditional school subjects." [2] Homerooms were introduced late in the nineteenth century and became increasingly common in recent decades, especially in large schools. Typically, all youth in school are assigned on one of several bases in groups of 25 to 35 to a teacher for the homeroom period at the beginning of the school day.

Considerable differences may be found with respect to the purposes, programs, bases of grouping and length and frequency of the period. Although a full period (equal in length to the class period) is usually recommended for purposes of guidance and related services, Wagner's study of homeroom practices in 94 representative urban schools having homerooms (10 of the 104 replying to her inquiry had no homerooms) disclosed that in over half (57) of these schools the homeroom period was only fifteen minutes or less, although in more than three fourths of the schools this period was daily. [3] A daily ten- or fifteen-minute period can allow little time for either individual conferences or group planning, and in usual practice is a time for roll calls, announcements, sales, collections, devotionals, and issuance of bulletins, reports, and school newspapers. However, some schools have a period approximating the length of regular class periods (13 of the 94 studied by Wagner had periods of forty minutes or longer). The personal-relations objective of the homeroom is also approached in some schools by having the homeroom group and the teacher remain together throughout the three or four years of high school.

Where teachers and pupils can get to know each other, homerooms may accomplish, at least in part, the purposes set forth by McKown: (1) to develop and maintain desirable student-teacher relation-

[2] Harry C. McKown, *Home Room Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946), p. 22.

[3] Josephine E. Wagner, "Factors Conducive to the Effective Functioning of the Home-Room Organization," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 135, **30**:91 (January), 1946.

ships; (2) to guide the student; (3) to develop desirable ideals and habits of citizenship; and (4) to expedite the handling of administrative routine educatively.[4] If the first and second objectives, which relate most closely to special services, can be achieved by means of the homeroom, then its existence seems justified.

Pupils are grouped for homeroom purposes on various bases, the major of which are by grade, alphabetically; alphabetically, without reference to grade; by subject class immediately following or preceding; by some common factor or combination of factors such as curriculum interest, vocational interest, intelligence, or sex; or by teacher or pupil choice.

We should note the relationship of two bases in particular to the special-service function of the homeroom. First, if the group and teacher are the same for the homeroom and class period following or preceding, desirable factors of flexibility and length are introduced to facilitate services that involve getting acquainted, pupil-teacher conferences, and group projects. Second, if the heterogeneity of a group can be reduced by grouping on some common factor such as curriculum or vocational interests the teacher may be able to do more counseling on a group basis. However, only in large high schools would it be possible to have homerooms composed of would-be doctors or nurses or teachers or accountants and so forth. Furthermore, certain social objectives are sacrificed when homogeneous grouping is attempted.

If periods are long enough, if routine is kept to a minimum, if in general the homeroom teacher can know the individual members well enough to provide special guidance services, a number of functions are possible:

Orienting new students to the program, activities, resources, and regulations of the school. Thus the homeroom period may be used for new pupils to take trips throughout the school, to hear various school workers describe special facilities, or to carry on discussions about their problems as entering pupils. Frequently, representatives of the various school organizations and activities come to the homeroom to present their programs and to secure participants.

Identifying educational needs of each individual and planning appropriate programs of studies and activities. If the homeroom is to serve a real guidance function, the homeroom teacher should have the cumulative records and other information about each member of the group. With this information and that secured through conferences with each youngster and his parents, the teacher is in position to counsel youngsters or at least to refer them to specialists in counseling.

Identifying difficulties in school progress and planning appro-

[4] See McKown, *op. cit.*, pp. 26–45.

priate remedial steps. Again, if the homeroom functions in the guidance program, classroom teachers would ordinarily discuss a youngster's difficulties with the homeroom teacher and the latter would work out some plans with the youngster toward solution of the problems. Here the homeroom teacher may need conferences with youngsters and parents, referrals to specialists in testing and diagnosis, and freedom to arrange program changes.

Identifying occupational interests, and planning appropriate investigations, studies, or work experience. If vocational orientation is not done adequately elsewhere, the homeroom period may offer excellent service in presenting speakers, films, and other programs dealing with occupational opportunities in the community. The homeroom teacher, too, may have responsibility for keeping records of youth's out-of-school work experiences, for arranging discussions within the homeroom period of these experiences, and for counseling youth regarding the problems involved in these experiences. Vocational-interest inventories may also be administered by the homeroom teacher, with the records kept in the homeroom files.

Identifying behavior and other personal problems, and planning appropriate assistance with such problems. If the basic philosophy of the homeroom functions, the homeroom teacher is the first person to whom students go with their personal problems. In the homeroom behavior problems may be identified, and youngsters and other counseled.

Maintaining records on each member for reference by other school workers, by parents, and by other persons. The maintenance of records, of course, is implicit in those already described. Unless homeroom teachers have facilities for maintaining records, and time to use them, the guidance function of the homeroom must be limited.

All the functions described here are carried on by the core teacher in a core-curriculum organization and by the grade teacher in an elementary school. That is, their provision is dependent on a close relation between the group and a teacher who can know the individual pupils well. How the functions are carried on in relation to the various subject teachers of one pupil and to other school workers becomes a difficult problem in the frequently complicated organization of a large school. If the homeroom teacher is responsible for coordinating special services for the members of the homeroom group, the subject teacher will ordinarily channel recommendations and requests to the homeroom. This procedure sometimes results in loss of time as well as a sacrifice of the personal contact of subject teacher and pupil. The problem should not exist, of course, if the homeroom serves only administrative functions, since the classroom teacher can best make requests and recommendations directly to whatever specialists are available.

The problem is even more complex when each pupil has in addition

to subject teachers and homeroom teachers a counselor to whom he is to go for advice on vocational, educational, and personal problems. In such confusing situations perhaps the best principle is that *whoever is approached by the student should deal as directly and immediately with the problem as possible.* In these situations confusion may be reduced and special services improved by the elimination of homerooms and the establishment of core-curriculum plans, with the core teacher primarily responsible for all special services. Lacking such a plan, the homeroom may serve helpfully as a clearinghouse between classroom teacher and counselors or other specialists.

SERVICES OF GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS

Specialists in guidance may bear such titles as guidance directors, vocational advisers or counselors, counselors, deans, coordinators, and directors of research or testing. A large school may have one or more persons bearing each of these titles, whereas in some systems most or all such persons will be assigned to a central office and work with various schools on a consultative basis. Frequently, these individuals have administrative functions such as scheduling, social affairs, public relations, management of special funds, scholarships, and so forth, which rarely have much relation to the provision of special services to individual youth.

The functions of persons bearing the same title but located in different schools or systems may be vastly different. Certain organizational relationships usually exist, however: these specialists consult with classroom (or core or homeroom) teachers regarding individual pupils and their problems and either make recommendations directly to the teacher and individual or take direct responsibility. The specialists also generally carry on certain types of activities, such as testing and vocational conferences on a school-wide basis, providing results to classroom (or core or homeroom) teachers and others who work directly with the students. That is, guidance specialists should, and ordinarily do, work with teachers, conferring or otherwise working with individual students only on teachers' requests or as a part of some school-wide program of a special-service nature. A desirable relationship between teachers and guidance specialists is shown in Table 23.

In general, the guidance specialist is a sort of "master teacher," expert in human relationships, since he must guide teachers as well as students, and competent in various specialized techniques suggested in the chart and described in more detail later in this chapter. This specialist should have the competencies necessary to carry on the following general functions:

1. Maintenance of adequate systems of communication among all school workers so that needed information about individual students will

TABLE 23

Functions of Teachers and Specialists in Guidance Services

Principal
(or designated representative)
Coordinates Administration of Services

FUNCTIONS OF CLASSROOM (AND HOMEROOM) TEACHERS	SPECIAL SERVICES TO INDIVIDUAL YOUTH	FUNCTIONS OF THE GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS
Provides learning situations Collects data about interests Confers with youth on interests Plans studies related to choice	1. Choosing a vocation	Maintains occupational materials, files, records Observes youth at work Gives aptitude tests Interviews youth on choice Helps teacher prepare resource units on vocations
Maintains records for specialists Helps youth with applications and interview preparation Helps youth with work habits and techniques	2. Finding a job	Maintains records for prospective employers Makes opportunity analyses Places youth in jobs Helps in adjustment on job Maintains records of follow-up studies
Collects data about interests Maintains records for specialists Confers with youth about needs Studies school's total curriculum	3. Planning an educational program	Maintains records of college requirements Gives intelligence and other tests Studies success in school and college Advises faculty on curriculum changes
Studies youth's total activities Maintains personal histories Confers with youth regarding problems and refers to specialists	4. Solving personal problems	Maintains contact with nonschool sources of help Confers with individuals Arranges for special help
Observes difficulties in skills Administers diagnostic tests Confers with youth and recommends sources of help Gives remedial instruction Advises other teachers of needs	5. Overcoming academic difficulties	Recommends or gives tests Refers to clinical agencies Confers with youth and teacher Advises teachers on remedial instruction

be made available. The nature of the communication needed depends on such factors as the size of the school and the type of curriculum organization. The larger the school, the more usual is the reliance on records, memorandums, and other methods of written communication. These methods all have the disadvantage of lack of personal interpretation by the specialist, and their usefulness is definitely limited by the amount of time teachers have for consultation of records and similar tasks. Conference between the specialist and teachers concerned is the more profitable method of communication, but again its use is limited by the time factor.

2. Advisement of teachers regarding such problems as use and interpretation of special services in the community, diagnosis of individual problems, remedial instruction, techniques of counseling interviews, and occupations. These services can be and ordinarily are provided in group situations. Services of this type should also be available on request by the individual teacher. Unfortunately, many teachers have frequently been hesitant to ask for such help because of a feeling that to request help is to admit a weakness. There is needed a wider acceptance of the fact that skillful classroom teaching is a specialized service, too, and that the teacher is merely exercising his skill by seeking help from a guidance specialist in a particular situation.

3. Testing—administration of individual and group tests, analysis and interpretation of results, and maintenance of adequate test records. This is probably the most usual function of the guidance specialist. The rapidly increasing number and types of tests and other instruments make it almost impossible for the classroom teacher to be familiar with all the varieties that may be helpful. It is essential, however, that teachers employ only instruments with which they can become sufficiently familiar to make use worth while.

4. Liaison between school and college, home, employers, and social agencies. In the small school, the principal or teacher serves this function. In the larger there is real need for a person with time and ability to make the various inquiries and other contacts with outside agencies essential to a program of service to students.

5. Dealing with individual cases of maladjustment requiring special skill and training. Few, if any, schools can provide all the medical, psychiatric, and other services needed to deal with adjustment cases. Any well-trained guidance worker, however, should be able to diagnose cases well enough to make referrals to services available outside school.

6. Maintenance of adequate records and systems for using them, of pupil progress, follow-up studies, and college and occupational requirements. Records and studies are seldom adequate unless there are persons available and qualified for the work involved. Furthermore, the most complete records or research data have little significance unless teachers can be given help in their interpretation and use. Specialists need, therefore,

to keep records and make readily available to teachers whatever useful studies they have planned together.

SOCIAL CASE WORK

Few high schools employ social case workers as distinguished from guidance specialists. Attendance officers, however, have been fairly common and now an increasing number of schools employ persons called "visiting teachers," "case workers," or "home visitors." A few school systems have the benefit of children's clinics whose staffs include psychiatrists, psychologists, and other specialists who are essentially case workers. Other school systems whose staffs do not include such specialists frequently have access to such services through local private and public institutions. Services of these case workers are usually organized in accordance with the following principles:

1. Students whose absence, behavior, maladjustment, economic problems, or other extremely difficult situations seem to require special investigation and help are referred to the case worker by the teacher or guidance specialist.

2. Following investigation made by the case worker alone or in conjunction with the teacher and guidance specialist, agreements are reached as to the next steps, and necessary action is taken by the teacher, guidance specialist, case worker, and others involved.

3. The nature of the case permitting, all individuals involved—parents, student, teacher, specialists, and case worker—come together for conferences and plans.

HEALTH SERVICES

The chief characteristic we are forced to observe regarding the organization of health services in secondary schools is their too frequent absence or inadequacy. This serious lack in our educational program was pointed out in 1945 as follows by a subcommittee appointed as representatives of United States government agencies concerned with the health problem:

> Health services for school children require adequate medical and nursing skill in order to function properly. As a rule, schools in large cities have the services of both a physician and a nurse, although the ratio of nurses and physicians to pupils is not adequate to perform the desired functions . . . In rural areas where approximately fifty per cent of the nation's children live, except for home medical inspection by health officers and local physicians, little or no medical service is available to school children. Public health nurses provide service, but this is not adequate in amount to maintain the necessary follow-up to secure treatment for physical and mental abnormalities. There are 845 of 3,000 counties in which there is no public health nursing service.[5]

[5] "Health Needs of School-Age Youth," *School Life*, **28**:10 (November), 1945.

In schools or school systems that provide health services, the pattern of organization is usually one of the following:

1. A school health clinic or department is serviced by one or more physicians, dentists, and nurses employed on a full or part-time basis by the schools. Schools fortunate enough to have such personnel can, of course, provide health services more widely and immediately.

2. Services of medical officers and public health nurses are provided by the public health department. This pattern may provide adequate service if the public health department staff is large enough to give school services as needed.

3. Services of private physicians, dentists, and nurses are provided by agreement between school and appropriate professional groups. Such agreements may include only periodic medical examinations or may be broad enough to guarantee adequate health services for all children in school.

Regardless of how organized, the major health services that schools should provide are generally considered to include those relating to care of emergencies, prevention and care of communicable diseases (including immunization against some), and health counseling. The last group of services involves the determination of health needs, that is, medical examinations. According to an important statement of recommended school health policies by the Health Education Council, representing many national educational, medical, dental, and health associations and governmental agencies, all boys and girls in school should have a minimum of four medical examinations—one at entrance, one in the intermediate grades, one at the beginning of adolescence, and one before leaving school. This recommendation also states that "medical examinations should be sufficiently painstaking and comprehensive to command medical respect, sufficiently informative to guide school personnel in the proper counseling of the student, and sufficiently personalized to form a desirable educational experience." [6] Health counseling services also include the administration of screening tests for vision and hearing, the maintenance of cumulative records, and the referral of students to nurses, physicians, dentists, psychiatrists, and other professional workers in the field of health.

CONTINUATION SERVICES

Many or most urban high schools continue to provide special services for students after they have dropped out of or completed high school. Thus follow-up studies of drop-outs and graduates intended to help them in occupational adjustment and in securing additional training are made by many high schools. Perhaps the most usual purpose of these

[6] The National Committee on School Health Policies of the National Conference for Cooperation in Health Education, *Suggested School Health Policies—A Charter for School Health*, 2nd ed., rev. (Washington, D. C.: Health Education Council, 1946), pp. 28–29.

studies has been to get data for curriculum revision. However, they also may help out-of-school youth by providing information to potential employers or by suggesting additional training possibilities.

Apprenticeship training programs in which the schools provide related training to students working in various trades have become important phases of secondary continuation programs during and since the war. With the aid of these programs many students are able to make a start in their chosen trade and to secure related training. Veterans' Institutes offering various educational programs, including apprenticeship training for veterans, became popular adjuncts to the secondary program after World War II.

Correspondence courses for students desiring to obtain required credit for high school diplomas are frequently offered through secondary schools, particularly those in rural areas where such courses may be given through the state university or through adult schools in cooperation with private correspondence schools. By 1944 correspondence study was provided in about half of the states through a state institution or through the state department of education.[7]

The guidance services offered to out-of-school youth are provided by the regular guidance staff. Usually evening, adult, or continuation classes are coordinated by some specially designated administrator such as the director of adult education, the director of evening activities, or the principal of the evening school. The extent of public support of these schools varies, tuition charges being common. It should be noted that the records and personal knowledge of the student's counselor or "mother" teacher, if he had one while in school, are essential to the continuation program. When the relationship between the high school and posthigh school program is close, as under the 6–4–4 plan, these teachers may even continue as advisers to their former high school students.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

Various other specialists may be employed in the comprehensive high school program. Large cities frequently have "special" schools or "special" rooms in their regular high schools, for physically handicapped students. These boys and girls are taught by teachers specially trained to deal with the blind, those with partial sight, the hard-of-hearing, the crippled, and those with other defects. As little segregation as possible is practiced when these students are enrolled in schools with normal children.

Speech correctionists are employed to help students with speech handicaps. These boys and girls attend regular classes but have special sessions with the speech specialist, who also advises teachers on means of

[7] See K. O. Broady, "Supervised Correspondence Study in the High Schools," *Education for Victory*, **3**:10 (July 20), 1944.

supplementing the remedial program. In view of the serious reading difficulties occurring in the now unselected high school population, reading specialists are needed, but less frequently employed, to work in the same way. Remedial reading classes or remedial (special) English classes are frequently organized to help with reading problems. For such classes to provide effective assistance to individual students, the teachers of these groups must have specialized abilities and the organization must facilitate the work.

Special teachers are also sometimes employed for mentally handicapped students, although this practice is most common in the elementary school because many of these handicapped students either fail to enter high school or, if they do enter, are frequently placed in supposedly easier classes or are assigned to special sections. In general, however, high schools are more and more attempting to individualize instruction within classes and to avoid thereby the social stigmas associated with ability grouping.

PLACEMENT SERVICES

High schools also assist students through various types of placement services. In the small high school, boys and girls are ordinarily helped in finding jobs through the principal's and teachers' personal knowledge of opportunities. Business men and other employers come to the schools for recommendations, and placement is an informal, though helpful, service.

In the larger schools placement services may be rather carefully organized with a coordinator or counselor in charge. Inquiries are routed to this person, and students desiring employment make application in accordance with the placement office's suggestion. In schools having work-experience programs, all or almost all placement may result as a consequence of the student's experience during the high school period. Whatever placement services the school offers must be planned with regard to employment laws and in cooperation with governmental employment agencies.

Methods of Studying and Helping Individual Students

As we have already noted, the various special services and the program and personnel they include, exist to assist teachers in identifying characteristics of pupils and in making suitable plans for each boy and girl in the light of his or her characteristics. Whether or not you will have in your school the services of specialists, you will want to know some of the common procedures and materials used with these services. We shall examine here certain methods or sources that are essential to the study and counseling of individual students, as well as, in its less specialized

phases, to teaching in general: (1) tests, (2) records, (3) inventories, (4) case studies, (5) observation, (6) interviews, and (7) various other methods. With each method of studying the individual student, we can also note the chief applications of the data teachers may make in their efforts to help students.

TESTS

Probably your preparation for teaching will include some course in which considerable attention will be given to testing; therefore we need here only to comment on the general uses of tests for identifying student characteristics. First of all, a caution should be emphasized about the use of tests: as yet no test or series of tests has been devised that diagnoses individuals well enough to replace or eliminate the judgment of teachers and other persons who are acquainted with the students. Tests, regardless of their objectivity and validity, constitute merely one technique for studying individuals—a technique that must be employed with care and judgment. The scientific movement in education brought with it a great reliance on objective tests that has gradually been minimized by studies showing the fallibility and limitations of verbalizations as measures of performance, either present or future.

There are, however, important uses to be made of tests by all who are concerned with the study of individuals. We may group these uses in terms of certain specific purposes: (1) to diagnose difficulties, (2) to estimate intelligence, (3) to determine aptitudes, and (4) to evaluate performance.

In general, almost every test may serve a diagnostic purpose. Both essay and objective tests that you may construct for your classes can be formulated to give information concerning student difficulties in comprehension of questions and directions, or in finding information in printed sources, or in interpreting graphic materials and so forth. Standardized tests of achievement have diagnostic value—in fact, this is usually their chief value—in that they provide information, through test analysis, of the kinds of difficulties students have in reading or arithmetic and the like. Also, a variety of standardized tests are now available for use in diagnosing difficulties in study skills, social adjustment, and critical thinking. You can secure further information about such tests and also about how to develop your own diagnostic instruments from various publications in the field of tests and measurements. (See "For Further Study" at the end of this chapter).

Intelligence tests were the forerunners of the modern testing movement and are almost universally employed in public schools to give teachers information about the capacities of their pupils. Too frequently, they are about the only source consulted in making estimates of pupils'

abilities. More recently studies by Stoddard [8] and others have impressed educators with the limitations of intelligence measures. Probably you will be given intelligence scores or intelligence quotients (I.Q.'s) on your pupils derived from group tests, and you should know that such results should be checked by individual tests (given by a person specially trained) if they are to receive important uses.

The most significant problem in connection with intelligence measures, as all other tests, is the use to be made of the results. Since grouping on the basis of ability never results in a really homogeneous group and since this type of grouping carries a social stigma, use of intelligence tests for grouping purposes is generally discouraged. We do know, however, that many types of school and after-school activities vary in their appeal to students of different levels of intelligence, and in planning with boys and girls we can anticipate success or difficulty accordingly. In general, intelligence scores within themselves are inadequate bases for planning individual activities, but they do help, along with other data, to anticipate possible needs for modifying plans first agreed on.

Achievement tests logically accompany educational practices that aim for achievement in terms of acquisition of subject-matter learnings. Teachers' tests, whether essay or objective, are characteristically achievement tests, although the term is commonly considered to apply to the standardized achievement tests widely published and used. These tests, popularized in the course of the scientific movement, have been used for such diverse purposes as determining grouping and promotion of pupils, evaluating teaching and teachers, comparing methods of teaching, and public relations.

Achievement tests usually test retention of facts in specified subjects or of verbal skills, but recent developments include the preparation and standardization of tests of the achievement of much broader objectives, such as social attitudes, scientific method, social competence, current affairs, critical thinking, and work habits. If the aims of secondary education consist wholly of the learning of isolated facts tested by the conventional subject-achievement tests, then these would be adequate measures of achievement. Since our aims include the understanding and use of facts as well as the development of skills and attitudes, the newer types of test are more satisfactory but still inadequate because of the virtual impossibility of constructing paper-and-pencil tests that will test actual behavior.

Achievement-test results, like those of intelligence and diagnostic tests, have real usefulness in teaching, provided that they are used in the light of the cautions suggested. Their primary source of usefulness is the indication they give of the success and difficulty students are experiencing.

[8] See George D. Stoddard, *The Meaning of Intelligence* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943).

They may be effective in analyzing with boys and girls their needs for further study, or for reconstruction of their purposes or procedures. The most common misuse of these tests is that of comparing certain individuals with others, individuals with the group, or the groups with one another. Such uses are thoroughly inconsistent with an educational philosophy that accepts the individual student for his own worth and builds his curriculum on his needs, capacities, and interests.

Aptitude tests have become increasingly common in the past decade and hold great promise for use in guidance services. Generally tests of some ability that is known to be significantly related to success in a particular occupation, they are at best only partial indicators and should always be carefully interpreted and guardedly followed in advising vocational choices. In general, use and interpretation of these tests require special training. At present specific aptitude tests, of varying validity, of the following types are available: engineering, manual, drawing, mechanical, nursing, music, scientific, teaching, clerical, medical, art. In addition there are a considerable number of general aptitude tests, vocational inventories, interest inventories, and aptitude tests for foreign languages and mathematics. [9]

RECORDS

Probably your most helpful source for learning quickly about a new student in your group is the various records that may have been kept throughout his school experience. Much as teachers decry the drudgery of record keeping, records that give vital information about a student are of significant value to his teacher, the guidance specialist, and other school workers. As a teacher, you will wish to consult records for such purposes as these:

1. To learn as much as possible about the boys and girls you are to teach.
2. To find possible explanations of the observed behavior of a student.
3. To determine possible standards of growth for each student to reach.
4. To secure information before the interviews arranged for counseling or other purposes take place.
5. To prepare for conferences with parents.
6. To prepare for case conferences held by faculty members concerned, regarding individual pupils.

[9] See N. William Newson, "Tests for the Guidance of Secondary School Pupils," *Bulletin*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 135, **30**:125–143 (January), 1946, for a list, with helpful information, of 110 standardized tests of aptitude and intelligence. Also see W. V. Bingham, *Aptitudes and Aptitude Testing* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945).

To accommodate such purposes as these, schools are increasingly using cumulative records, which retain in one comprehensive folder or file as much essential information as possible about the student. This is in decided contrast to the traditional records concerned almost exclusively with subjects taken, marks assigned, and attendance. However, to use the more complete record involves complete understanding of the record system; the teachers concerned must have careful orientation in the system and time to consult the records.

As a student, what do you think your teachers should know about you? As a teacher or counselor, what should you know about the persons whom you teach and counsel? An adequate cumulative record should include, we believe, the following types of information:

Personal information. Date and place of birth, race, family history, home responsibilities, unusual experiences such as work and travel.

School history. Schools attended, record of promotions and marks, courses taken, unusual successes or failures, honors and awards, attendance, copies of reports to parents.

Test data. Records of achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and other test results.

Out-of-class activities. Membership in school and in out-of-school organizations, student committees and offices, hobbies and leisure interests, experiences in community service or work projects.

Health. Reports of physical and dental examinations, illnesses, immunizations.

Miscellaneous enclosures. Anecdotal records of behavior, autobiographies, correspondence, copies of transcripts.

Various questions pertaining to the preparation and storage of, and responsibility for, these records are best answered in terms of their use. For the sake of efficiency, it is essential that each student's record be kept in some place to which all school workers concerned with helping the student may have access. In general, the teacher immediately responsible for coordinating special services for a pupil should have charge of his record. If there is a core curriculum, this will be the core teacher. If homeroom teachers serve a guidance function, they will be responsible for the records. If there is no core or homeroom teacher or other adviser, the records will have to be filed and maintained centrally. It is in such situations that their use is generally least effective.

INTEREST AND PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

Closely related to aptitude tests is another pencil-and-paper method of individual study—interest and personality inventories. Any questionnaire used by employers to secure information about a person's character traits is a personality inventory, and so are many types of rating

devices and scales used to estimate personal qualifications, as well as the various types of check lists of personal traits used in reports to parents. Some schools use standard check lists that all teachers complete annually for each student, these lists being filed in the cumulative record for reference by guidance specialists and others. There are also some standardized tests and inventories that can be completed by the students themselves to give information about personal qualifications. In general, these latter instruments have rather limited value for identifying personality traits; the case history, judgments of others, and observations usually provide more reliable data. Probably the chief use of the various personality inventories is that of self-analysis and improvement, and this use demands careful administration and interpretation of results with the help of specialists.

Extensive use is now being made of various types of interest inventories. The simplest type, which you can and should frequently use with students, is a check list of various interests pertaining to occupations or recreation or other centers of interest. More complicated are various published vocational-interest inventories which seek to determine interests indicative of vocational aptitudes and preferences. Used by pupils and teachers with caution, these instruments have real value in helping pupils analyze interests and preferences and in leading to further investigations.

CASE STUDIES

Social case workers have developed a method of studying persons called the "case-study method," which follows somewhat the scientific procedure of medicine in identifying symptoms, diagnosing causes, and applying remedial measures. Although the classroom teacher rarely has time and training for the highly detailed investigations involved in a complete case study, he can adopt the same scientific attitude. That is, he looks below the surface of some overt symptom of maladjustment to locate causes and tries to treat basic causes rather than deal merely with their outward manifestations. In so doing, he will be fortunate to have the services of a visiting teacher, psychiatrist, or other case worker. In the absence of these services, careful study of records, and use of the techniques of tests, interview, and observation may be helpful.

A case study is merely an extension of the cumulative record; that is, the facts ordinarily contained in the record are studied more comprehensively together with supplementary data in the case study. For example, a complete case study of a high school student would involve investigation through interviews, tests, records, home calls, and other sources of information, of such background factors as family background, health, educational history, economic and social status, parent-child rela-

tionships, out-of-school activities, relationships with others, attitudes, emotional adjustment, vocational interests, sex development, and others.

OBSERVATION

The most easily available and also one of the most fruitful techniques for studying a person is that of observation. Observation may help in identifying physical and emotional difficulties, in analyzing behavior problems, and in determining social characteristics. At the same time, observation is more than mere physical association; teachers sometimes have students in their classes a whole year without observing such obvious characteristics as nearsightedness, skin allergies or diseases, and adenoids. Effective observation takes place in varied situations and involves careful noting of relationships of actions and reactions of persons under different circumstances.

Observation methods are employed most profitably when specific questions need to be answered about a person: Does Johnnie have vision difficulties? Does Mary have a short attention span? Does Tom go to pieces in a difficult situation? Does Betty discourage association with other girls? When there is reason to suspect such conditions, careful observation of the person for periods of several minutes at intervals for a number of days may supply the answer.

Observation at best is only one method of investigation and must be supplemented by other methods. If it is to be helpful, it should be carried on in many situations and by more than one observer, and its conclusions need to be validated by other diagnostic procedures.

INTERVIEWS

A characteristic activity of counselors is the interview; some guidance systems even base their entire program on a few short interviews of counselor with students. The interview, properly set and conducted, is an economical technique for getting information, observing the individual, and answering as well as asking questions. It is a method that classroom teachers can employ effectively and economically, if teachers are given out-of-class time for the purpose or have sufficiently flexible schedules and arrangements within class to have interviews there or in adjoining offices.

Some of the situations in which teacher-pupil interviews may be helpful are these:

1. The pupil seems without purpose or interest, and the teacher needs to know how to supply or develop purposes and interests.
2. The pupil's achievement is less than indicated by his ability.
3. The pupil's ability is such that he needs a challenge in studies that are too advanced for the group as a whole, and the teacher needs further information as to types of experiences that would be challenging.

4. The pupil's behavior is not understood by the teacher.
5. The pupil appears to have difficulty in social relationships.
6. The pupil is interested in changing his program of studies, or in entering a vocational field, or in preparing for further training.
7. The pupil has a responsibility as a class officer or as some other chosen person, and the teacher can help in planning for this responsibility.
8. The pupil appears to have personality conflicts with members of the group or with the teacher.

The interview is most promising as a means of helping students in such situations when it is held under the following conditions:

1. The interview is at the request of the student or for consideration of problems real to him.
2. The interview is held in a private, attractive place.
3. The teacher or counselor is as familiar as possible prior to the interview with the student's background.
4. Friendliness and mutual confidence exist or are made to exist.
5. The problem is clearly identified and freely discussed.
6. A plan of action is agreed on, including plans for any possible help to be given by the interviewer.
7. An adequate record is prepared (usually afterward) of the interview as a basis for further interviews or for study and other action.

OTHER METHODS OF STUDYING STUDENTS

In addition to the methods described in preceding paragraphs, several others are available to resourceful teachers. No one method within itself is adequate, and frequently use of one involves use of another.

Autobiographies are commonly written by new students to give teachers a ready history of the individual. These histories provide information of a limited and subjective nature, but sometimes provide clues to interests and background factors needing further investigation.

Although accurate daily time schedules cannot always be secured, they sometimes indicate possible explanations of students' difficulties. The schedules should be collected at intervals for analysis before hypotheses are developed.

Marks given by other teachers need to be examined, although reliance on these as indicators of interest or even success is not sound. They should be checked to confirm the students' own statements of interests, proficiencies, and needs, or to compare with tests and other data.

Conferences with parents and students' other associates may be especially helpful in understanding previous experiences, family backgrounds, and present problems. Home calls are particularly profitable sources of information regarding home influences.

The Teacher and Special Services

Throughout this chapter we have emphasized the role of the classroom teacher in coordinating the special services of the school to individual students. Even in a departmentalized system without core or homeroom or other "mother teacher" arrangements, the classroom teacher is primarily responsible for detecting needs for special services, for identifying most pupil characteristics, and for making and implementing with pupils many plans in the light of their characteristics. Furthermore, in such systems each student may have special confidence in one of his four or five teachers and will expect to receive special help from that teacher.

What competencies will you need in order to discharge these responsibilities? We suggest the following as desirable:

1. Sincere interest in people, and an understanding of ways in which you can secure their confidence—a first criterion for teachers, and a trait in which you can improve by continued association with, and working for, other persons.

2. Understanding of adolescents through observation, case studies, varied contacts, and study of related courses and literature. The making of case studies in connection with your courses in educational psychology or student teaching is excellent experience.

3. Knowledge of the special services available in your school and community. You should secure this knowledge through the orientation program for teachers of your school.

4. Knowledge of the varied methods, discussed in this chapter, of studying persons through reading about and using these methods in practice situations. Your first teaching experience will be better if your preservice education includes opportunities to analyze tests and records, to conduct interviews, to participate in case conferences, and to observe students systematically.

FOR FURTHER STUDY

American Youth Commission, *Youth and the Future*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.
See Chapter VIII for the commission's analysis of the problem of occupational adjustment of youth.

Bedell, Ralph C. (ed.), *Basic Guidance*, Bulletin Number 1 of the Nebraska

Guidance Bulletins; Lincoln, Nebr.: State Department of Vocational Education, 1947.
Readable analysis of guidance purposes and procedures for small high schools.

Blair, Glenn Myers, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.
A useful analysis for the teacher interested in providing for individual pupils who have difficulty in the skills. Chapters 1 to 7 deal with diagnostic and remedial teaching of reading. Chapter 12 explains how to make a case study and includes illustrative studies.

Chisholm, Leslie L., *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School.* New York: American Book Company, 1945.
Part Two suggests procedures and materials teachers may find useful in orientation programs, counseling, testing, use of records, and related problems. See Chapter XII for an especially helpful analysis of types of tests.

Corey, Stephen M., and others, *General Education in the American High School.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman Company, 1942.
Chapter 10, "Guidance Is Becoming an Integral Part of the Program," presents excellent examples of the place of guidance in a general-education program.

"Education is Guidance," *Educational Leadership,* 5:481–548 (May), 1948.
The entire issue deals with guidance services: philosophy, ilustrations, and guides to methods and materials.

Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth.* Washingington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1944.
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